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ABSTRACT

The 13 papers in this volume are: "Behind Bars with CBE--Look What's Happening to Inmate Training" (Beverly A. Stitt, Rita Noel); "Communication Skills: Relevance, Respect, Responsibility and the Process of Change" (Meredith Whaley); "The Educational Needs of Inmates in the Kingston Prison for Women" (Richard Volpe, Colleen Kearney); "The Effects of Incarceration and Education on Self-Concept: Creating a Positive Role-Person Merger" (Paul J. Nemecek); "Functional Retardation: A Critical Focus for Adult Correctional Education" (Rajendra Kunar Srivastava); "The Liberal Arts in the Correctional Setting: 'Education Befitting Free Men'--for Those Who Presently Are Not Free" (Elizabeth J. Barker); "Life Skills Training Program in a Captive Environment" (Manoucheher Khatibi); "P.L. 94-142 and the Incarcerated Adult: A Legal Analysis and Case Study" (Steven Rittenmeyer); "Preparing Mentally Handicapped Offenders in a Prison Setting for Release into Society" (Bob Liles, Kevin Faherty); "Self-Paced Vocational Programs in Correctional Facilities" (Sheila Ortega Schreiber); "A Study of Correctional Educators in Adult Correctional Institutions" (Darrel DeGraw); "Success Secrets for Teaching Business Computer Courses" (Steven Hershberger); and "Using Situational Assessment to Improve Vocational Skill Development" (Wilfred D. Wienke). (SK)

CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

1986 ANNUAL CONFERENCE

OMNI NETHERLAND PLAZA

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CALL FOR PAPERS

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CALL FOR PAPERS

List of Presenters

Behind Bars With CBE--Look What's Happening to Inmate Training
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Communication Skills: Relevance, Respect, Responsibility and the Process of Change
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The Educational Needs of Inmates in the Kingston Prison for Women
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Functional Retardation: A Critical Focus for Adult Correctional Education
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BEHIND BARS WITH CBE--LOOK WHAT'S HAPPENING TO INMATE TRAINING

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Hartzel L. Black, Dean of Correctional Education,
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Early in prison history it was not uncommon to make a teacher out of an inmate who knew a trade, and have him provide a sort of vocational education to other inmates, but today's vocational training, within correctional institutions, is using professional instructors, is using high technology equipment, is demanding skilled performance, and is getting results. The changes were brought about by: increasing prison populations, recognition of the "lack of street adjustment" by inmates, and the public demand for educational accountability. A renewed commitment to providing skills for employability, survival skills for life in "outside" communities, and documented placement of graduates to support the effectiveness of classroom training has resulted in the adoption of programs which clearly identify skills needed and the steps for achieving those skills. Industry needed to provide the tasks employees were required to perform, but education needed to provide the training for the performance of those tasks. Combining task and the guides for performance of the task resulted in competency-based instruction. Competency-based or performance-based education is intended to improve the teaching-learning process. It is a system for determining and structuring expected outcomes so the delivery and evaluation of instruction may be greatly enhanced. Prison populations have unique characteristics and the institutional setting defines physical boundaries and sets teaching restraints, but CBE provides both teacher and student with a better alternative for meeting student needs.

Range of Vocational Education Programs in Illinois

With more than 17,000 individuals incarcerated in the State of Illinois, education for employability has renewed its focus and has made explicit demands. The prison classification system within the state encompasses three basic security divisions: maximum, medium, and minimum. Generally speaking, maximum security is a term used for those inmates serving more than a ten year

sentence; medium, for inmates still serving ten years or less; and minimum, for those with three years or less remaining of their sentence. Shifts in prison populations and special circumstances may alter the definition of those terms, but in general, where an inmate is placed is determined by his length of expected imprisonment. Vocational Education programs are operating at all of the facilities. Maximum security institutions, however, offer limited depth in training, due to the anticipated gap between when training occurs and possible employment on the outside. Most maximum institutions are currently offering between 2-3 programs in a very controlled environment (although welding programs and construction programs requiring the use of handtools and automated tools are part of the training). Medium security institutions (eight for men and one for women), currently in operation within the state, offer a much larger selection of programs. Which courses will be offered are currently proposed by several agencies working together (including the Department of Adult Vocational Technical Education, the State Corrections Department, and the Board of Higher Education). They take a strong look at (1) projected employment within industry, (2) types of survival skills taught for community induction, and (3) the needs of the specific institution.

Vienna Correctional Institution

Minimum security institutions offer the most varied vocational education programs with a combination of full-time day courses and (in some institutions) part-time evening instruction. Although four institutions qualify as minimum security, the Vienna Correctional Institution in Vienna, Illinois, is perhaps one of the most progressive institutions of its kind in the nation and is currently providing more than twenty programs in vocational education. Students can elect to complete a certificate in a specialty area or continue within the program to qualify for an Associate of Applied Science degree. Day-

time, full-time vocational education training includes a fascinating breadth of topics including game-bird management, alcohol gasification, journalism, barbering, computer-aided drafting, auto and diesel mechanics, ornamental horticulture, and many others. By taking advantage of the night programs, students can also pursue an academic degree and take a vocational course at night for increasing self-marketability.

Initial Student Placement

Students are placed into a vocational program in a rather unique manner. Provided with an initial two-week orientation program which includes institutional procedures, they are also tested for reading level, math skills, manipulative skills, and interest areas. A counselor and the student, match the students tested ability levels and interest areas with available vocational programs, and the student selects four possible occupational areas. Then the student actually goes into each occupational training area, completes a pretest, works through one or two competencies in the program, and spends a half day in the working environment. He will do this for all four selected occupational areas. After each experience, the instructor of the area will evaluate the students performance and observable aptitude. The student, too, will evaluate the program, his likes and dislikes, and his reaction to the work environment. Both evaluations will be returned to the vocational counselor where the final synthesis and analysis will take place as to the final program selection.

The next step in placement involves developing an individual Career Plan or Program Agreement. The training plan is a contractual agreement between the institution and the student. The student must agree to get out of bed and arrive at school on time, to go through the competencies, and to achieve certification in that area. He will also agree to placement in that area of

training once he is released from the institution. Any renegotiation of the contract will require a concensus from the instructor, the student, the Correction's Counselor, and the Vocational Counselor. If his behavior in his living unit is a contributing factor, his Correction's Officer may also be included in the negotiations.

The Change to CBE

"This type of preplanning and testing was very supportive of individualized instruction with open entry/open exit programs, but we were not satisfied with the outcome performances of our students. Students here at the institution, as in any learning environment, ought to be able to do what the job requires of them. We felt that validating our program competencies with current practices of industry would not only assure us (the educators) that students could do what we said we taught, but would increase the possibilities of employment of those students when released," commented Vienna's Dean of Correctional Education, Mr. Hartzel L. Black. "Competency based education was a natural step forward from our existing teaching methods and it has not only increased our student/learning accountability, but has allowed us to institute long-range planning needs for equipment, space, and curriculum design," he concluded.

Mr. Black has shared his success with many educational groups throughout the state and even nationwide. He continued, by saying, "educators who say open entry/open exit works only for confined populations are not seeing the whole picture. If public schools have learning guides based on competency-based curriculum, and if they wish to become facilitators of the learning process they can make it work." He went on to add that major roadblocks to the successful implementation of a CBE program were, "those who feel CBE will contribute to discipline problems--when infact--it actually does just the re-

verse. Competency-based programs with learning guides actually help keep students motivated."

How CBE Helps!

Traditional approaches to instruction have generally centered around an entire curriculum for a program on a fixed time basis; i.e., everyone completes the entire course at the same time with the same teaching/learning techniques! Many educators have accepted this traditional approach where learning is the variable and time the constant. Teachers try to cover as much material as possible with the hope that the majority of the students will gain enough knowledge and skills to be successful in obtaining a job.

In contrast, the CBE system focuses on producing competent completers who can perform to industry standards. Learning becomes the constant and time the variable. CBE programs are designed to result in success. It is possible for students to enter a training program to learn 10-12 tasks and then immediately exit the program for employment or an advanced employment position. In addition, in most institutions, trainees must wait until the beginning of a new term or semester to begin learning tasks; whereas in a CBE environment, they may enter a program immediately on a space-available basis. With prison populations this feature is particularly positive since the students are transferred, restricted, or released within hours of notification.

Another feature of a CBE program which is particularly valuable to corrections is the possibility of specializing in a specific job title rather than completing an entire program. Students have varying abilities and experiences that result in widely different levels of readiness to master certain tasks. With CBE, students can receive certificates verifying that they are competent for a specific job title. They can achieve as many certificates as time, interest, and ability permit. It is important to note that these incarcerated

students are completing state designated competencies that comply with state regulations, and they must pass state examinations in many occupational areas. It makes no difference how much education each student seeks, so long as each completer is employable in a job or job category which meets his interests, abilities, and needs.

By definition, CBE refers to a system whereby tasks of workers are identified and validated via a current advisory committee or workers on the job. Performance objectives are written and given to students prior to instruction. Instruction is centered around performance objectives. Criterion-referenced objective evaluation measures are used to evaluate performance. The program can be open entry/open exit, and students master a given task before progressing to the next task (Oen, p. 10). This process can be charted as seen on page 8 using the CBE Curriculum Development Model.

Role of Instructor and Student

The major role of the instructor in the CBE system is one of "coordinating learning activities" or facilitating learning rather than the traditional "dispensing of information." Instructors spend the major portion of their teaching time giving demonstrations, assigning tasks, providing individual and small group assistance, evaluating student progress, and providing individual consultation. Teachers generally find this role to be quite fulfilling and satisfying once they see that learning is taking place for all students rather than for just the few making up the central ability level of the class.

The student role is built on the concept of individuals pursuing the instructional program prescribed for their personal goals and objectives. The major portion of the student's time is spent in directed self-study and practice, supervised at all times by instructors ready to provide immediate assistance when needed. Students can learn at their own rate of speed within pro-

gram guidelines. Through pretesting, students may receive credit or advance placement based on what they already know prior to learning. Students, rather than the teacher, are responsible for what they learn, thereby shifting the burden of responsibility to the learner. Most importantly, students compete against present job standards and not other students. They are graded on achievement of the standards or criteria of each task, primarily through task performance measures. A summary of research studies indicates that in a traditional system of instruction, 70 percent of the students usually can perform 70 percent of the tasks they learned 70 percent of the time on a job. In a CBE system, 95 percent of the students usually can perform 95 percent of the tasks they learned 95 percent of the time on a job. The result is a 25 percent net gain in performance on a job for those students who learned via a CBE system of instruction (Oen, p. 32).

Developing Instructional Materials

With the increased possibilities of task performance, it is easy to see why CBE was attractive for corrections education. It was with that conclusion that Hartzel Black decided to provide inservice for his staff that would prepare them to develop and implement CBE teaching materials and methods. During the Spring of 1985, Dr. Beverly Stitt was asked to spend 6 days over a 3 month period providing the technical assistance necessary to the corrections staff. The staff in both the vocational and general education programs were given instruction in writing tasks, getting them verified and sequenced for timely introduction. They were then shown how to develop these tasks into measurable performance objectives with specific conditions of performance and criteria for mastery. At this point the instructors developed criterion-referenced written tests and product/performance checklists for evaluating mastery of each objective. They were instructed in the development of both complete stu-

dent learning guide packets and single sheet learning guides that contained the objective, learning steps, resources, procedures, and evaluation description. The result was a wide variety of learning guides for programs such as game-bird management, welding, journalism, gasahol plant management, music appreciation, English, computer literacy, and drafting among many others. These materials are currently being used successfully by the instructors who developed them and are being modified and revised as deemed desirable after evaluation of the outcomes. These instructors received graduate credit through SIU for completing the inservice program which was conducted using competency-based materials and methodology. In this way, they were able to experience a course that was competency-based while learning to develop their own programs to be competency-based. On the whole the response was very positive both to the inservice credit course and the resulting curricula now in use.

"The Total Picture"

When questioned as to the future plans for vocational education with competency-based education, Mr. Black voiced most of the concerns commonly found among educational institutions, "the need to more closely integrate vocational education with the needs of private industry, with institutional needs, and with correctional industries." He said, "institutions must develop programs that are cost-effective, that can be run on a cost-recovery basis, programs that are oriented toward business, industry, and productivity. Vocational Education Programs today, must address the problems of fabrication, production methods, and time/cost analysis. Whether a student works for someone else or works as the entrepreneur he needs to go through the entire process, recognizing that every step in production is part of the total cost of the product. A waitress needs to know that "time is money" and a worker in the alcohol plant needs to know what it costs to produce one gallon of alcohol. Competency-

based curricula, with validated competencies, will assure that students learn the total picture."

COMPETENCY BASED CHECKLIST

DIRECTIONS: Evaluate your Learning Delivery System using the following checklist. Rate each item yes or no on each characteristic.

	Characteristics	Criteria YES	NO
1.	The tasks to be achieved by the students:		
	*A. have been validated by incumbent workers or advisory committee?	_____	_____
	*B. begin with an action verb?	_____	_____
	*C. are made public in advance of instruction?	_____	_____
	*D. are updated annually?	_____	_____
*2.	Have performance objectives been written for each task?	_____	_____
3.	Does each performance objective contain:	_____	_____
	*A. a restatement of the task?	_____	_____
	*B. the conditions upon which the task is to be performed?	_____	_____
	*C. the criteria or proficiency standards for performance?	_____	_____
*4.	Does instruction provide for the individual assessment of each task?	_____	_____
*5.	Is student evaluation based upon actual performance of the task as the major source of evidence of mastery?	_____	_____
*6.	Can students progress at their own rate?	_____	_____
*7.	Before a student can progress, must he/she demonstrate task mastery?	_____	_____
8.	Can students help decide which skills they will master?	_____	_____
*9.	Are different learning tasks assigned to different students at any given time?	_____	_____
*10.	Do different students working on a given task use different learning materials, media, and equipment?	_____	_____
*11.	Does your instruction provide immediate feedback results to the learner?	_____	_____
*12.	Is help given to students individually rather than in a group?	_____	_____
*13.	Are objective performance tests (checklists) available and used to measure mastery of each task?	_____	_____

*14. Do you develop a personalized plan of instruction or learning prescription for each of your students based upon each one's needs, interests, and abilities? _____ _____

15. Do you provide for small group, large group, 1:1, and other types of instruction when needed? _____ _____

16. Do you change the sequence of learning activities for a student when it is needed? _____ _____

*Critical Items

Total Possible Points	21
Points Earned	
Points Needed for Mastery	19

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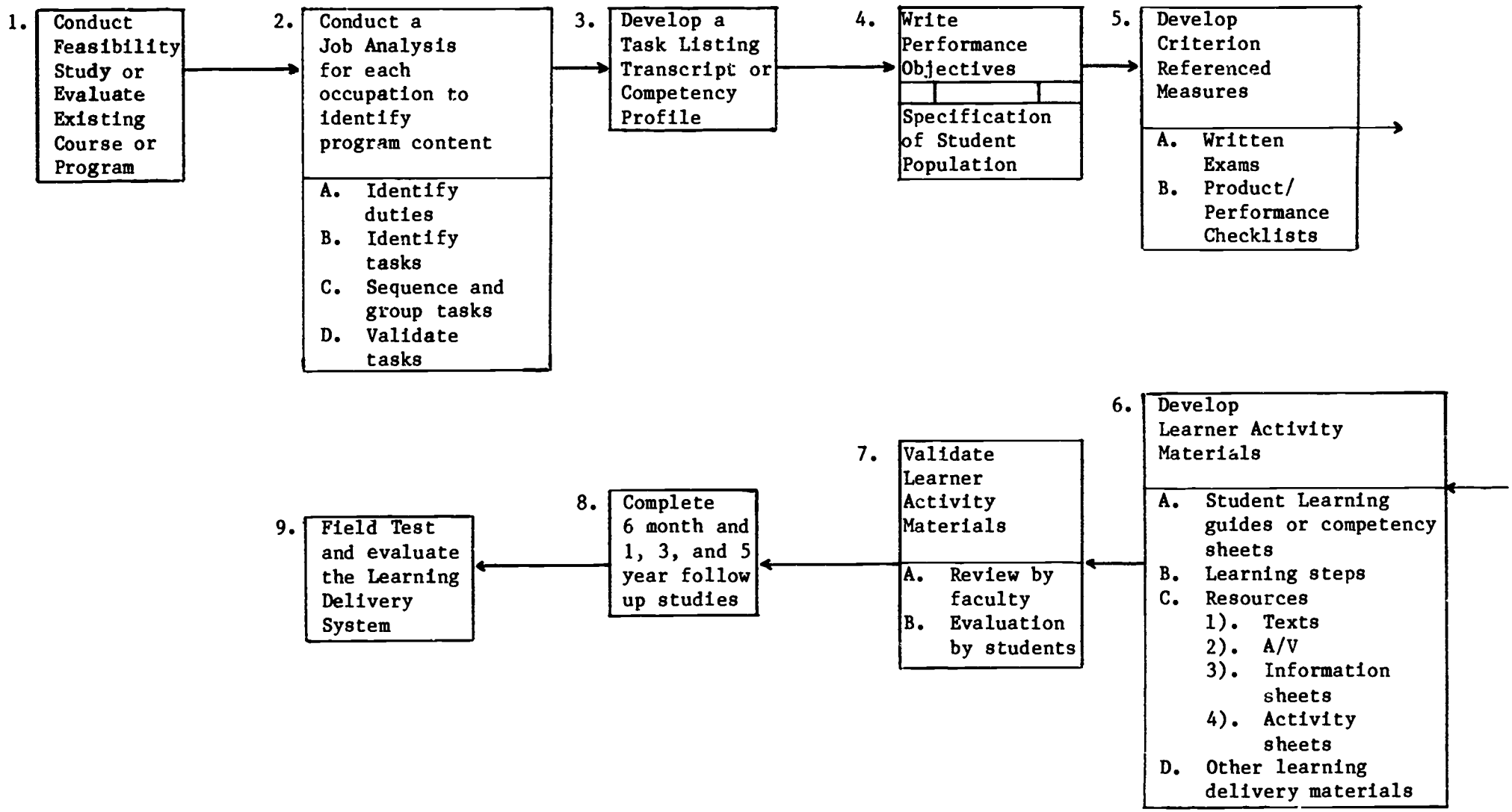
CBE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT MODEL



*This model was developed by Dr. Urban Oen, Director, for the Illinois Competency-Based Vocational Education Project.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS:

RELEVANCE, RESPECT, RESPONSIBILITY AND THE PROCESS OF CHANGE

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STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The purpose of this research project is to discover what differences and what similarities in beliefs and values exist between two groups of students; freshman level college students at San Francisco State University and freshman level college students at a facility of the California Youth Authority. The comparison of these two groups will be done through a content analysis of their essays, written for their composition classes. A questionnaire will also be used for basic demographic information and intra-group comparisons. A copy of the questionnaire is attached.

This is essentially a pilot project for future research. A more thorough exploration should follow, along lines suggested by the results of this project. It is not possible to predict where the differences and similarities will fall at this stage.

I am concerned with the formation of value systems and the ability for change and growth within these systems. This research project was prompted, in part, by reading such as Habits of the Heart by Robert Bellah, Loss and Change by Peter Marris, The Structure of Scientific Revolutions by Thomas Kuhn, and New Rules by Daniel Yankelovich. The motivation for this study is a desire for a better understanding of American culture and to make an active contribution to that understanding.

Young people are the most dynamic element of our culture. They are engaged in modifying the beliefs and traditions they have inherited into new forms for a new age. It is this process that intrigues me and forms the basic query of the research. How do students learn to recombine traditional values with new rules? Are some methods more effective than others? How can teachers and parents positively stimulate this process?

These questions lead to an examination of teaching methods. Hopefully, the results of this pilot project and the extended research will suggest new directions in education.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS:

RELEVANCE, RESPECT, RESPONSIBILITY AND THE PROCESS OF CHANGE

Change involves struggle and suffering. It is a process that demands courage and authenticity. As you know this is not an easy thing to bring about in a correctional classroom. Typically we deal with a population characterized by an inadequate value system and an inability to perceive options or make positive decisions. Still, most of our students will, one day, walk out through our front doors, free. They will return to society and either understand the responsibility that freedom entails or they will not. Each time I see a new student I am reminded of that. That is the challenge they offer me. Can I make it matter to them? Can I help them develop self-repsect? Can I help them see their authentic place in the scheme of things in society?

Relevance is probably the single most important word in my educational vocabulary. Learning will not take place in an unmotivated student and without relevance he cannot be truly motivated. He must see how the material relates to him, how he can transfer it to his life on the outside. This population wants a piece of the pie, they just don't know how to get it. Often their opinion of themselves is so low they cannot imagine having any right to it.

Obviously certain traditional learning schemes are not practical with this population so, although my classes are always labeled "English" or "Communi-

cation Skills," they do not follow the usual methods for teaching these subjects. I have developed, over time, a program that, for me and many of my students, has worked. It is not enough for a student to be able to read and write if he cannot think. So, we do not focus on sentence structure or rules or spelling. We focus on ideas--on thinking. Communication only becomes important if you have something to say. In a shop class the instructor can teach a student to use a hammer and nails by having him endlessly hammer nails into a board or he can, instead, choose to have the student work on a project--something functional. Product will motivate the student and tool usage will be learned out of need. It is no different in academic classes.

Today we are busy teaching inmates employability skills. They learn to write resumes, experience interviews, etc. But what good does it do if they are not motivated to seek legitimate employment? It is unlikely we will be able to convince an inmate whose committing offense has brought him fast and easy money to take pride in being a first-class janitor when he returns to society.

It is foolish of us to imagine inmates changing. Our personalities have many facets. We are many selves unique and often at odds with one another. Understanding that, our principal goal is to facilitate the growth of "adeptive selves" that can deal with the logical consequences of their behavior.

So, whatever the classroom label is doesn't matter to me. I am always teaching the same thing--thinking. I try to dramatize the moment, make of the classroom an arena, a place of trust and mutuality of learning, an environment of significance that appeals to their basic need to affiliate. It is a reality based form of teaching--bring the whole person into the classroom not just subject matter and methods. We all demand structure for our lives. Unhappily we live in a fragmented society where little can be planned for, where alter-

natives, options, solutions, answers, if you will, are not pat or absolute. Life is no longer a true/false test. We have entered a situation ethics arena and the solutions are in direct relationship to the population and its environment. We must discard the unimaginative texts and workbooks of the past and deal directly with the students. Teaching has traditionally been an adversarial relationship. It is even more so in a correctional setting. We cannot educate. We can only motivate students to take responsibility for educating themselves. To do that we must help them envision personal involvement and a means of meeting their own needs. But I did not know these things when, five years ago, I walked into my first classroom of youthful offenders. I had been asked to teach in the college program at El Paso de Robles Boy's School for Questa College.

I did not know what to expect. Nothing in my background as a writer and college instructor in creative writing and literature prepared me for this adventure.

I cannot now remember what I imagined the situation would be like. I do remember a sense of uneasiness. Whatever expectations I developed came out of my experience with the wards as individuals. I did a great deal of listening. There were many things I did not know were impossible, so, in my class, for several wards, they worked.

Because my own background was that of a sometimes maverick I could relate firsthand to some of their problems and experiences.

The college program is made up of about 8% of the total population of the institution. These are supposed to be the best and the brightest. In other words, their reading level approaches the eighth grade and they give little in the way of problem behavior. They work in various positions around the institution by day and attend their college classes at night.

Now the wards receive all their academic instruction in the classroom. This does not allow for individual differences in learning. The wards typically come to the classroom with a series of handicaps. They are in this institution because of a rigidity of thinking, a limited perception of their options, an inability to make good decisions, a low self-concept, a susceptibility to peer pressure, a reluctance to depart from the security of a gang-oriented society, and little knowledge about who they are, what they think, and what their range of possibilities is. They possess an aversion to the school setting as a result of irregular school attendance, learning disabilities, emotional/family problems, etc. As a result there are great gaps in their education. If they happen to be bright it only compounds the problem. Their status, their image of cool and competent, can't be maintained. They are unable to learn because they are unwilling to let others witness their mistakes and failures. Trust must be established. Wards need to feel they are working in a challenging but non-threatening environment.

They come to the teacher's classroom from their cottage where they are trying to do a good program so they can get time cuts and go back out onto the street. The counselors in their cottage are in the uneasy and often impossible role of trying to gain the trust of their charges at the same time they enforce the rules that govern ward's lives. To gain their freedom the wards must appease, manipulate, con, but only rarely and partially, trust. The teacher has an advantage. She too has something the wards want. She too is an authority figure. But the nature of the relationship is different. Under the instructor's careful supervision the classroom becomes an arena. It is ideally suited to dialogue. It is unlike group therapy where the ward can rehearse for this. In the classroom wards can explore freely, once trust and respect have been established (without fear of looking foolish) ideas they

have thought were excluded from them. Through this they learn to trust themselves and respect their individuality.

This is a special population. It is not sufficient to merely teach the disciplines. First you try to change the wards' way of viewing education and motivate them through relevancy.

My philosophy of education is based on respect, genuine caring, expectation of positive change. It is not the role of the teacher to lower the hurdles, but to help students over them. I attempt to model the behavior I seek. In the classroom we are not focused on one's individual shortcomings and lack of judgement but on the process of analyzing situations and making good decisions. The content changes from class to class but the process remains the same. Many of the wards who believe themselves to be sophisticated and street-smart come to realize they are more naive and "innocent" than they could possibly have imagined and that the classroom, far from being an ivory tower, can become a practice arena for the most significant issues of life. These young men need to establish a personal value system and this structure facilitates it.

Each teacher has her own unique style of teaching. Mine is difficult and exacting and requires that I too enter the arena. Because I am constantly challenging my students to think and be authentic I must be constantly on the line myself. I must be ready to defend and explain at any time my beliefs, values, indeed every statement I make. The wards are pros at spotting phonies. Many are skeptical and contemptuous of authority figures because they have been so often disappointed or betrayed by those in authority. Therefore trust is slow and tentative in coming and can only be earned by a long testing period. The testing period is much lessened as the instructor's reputation for consistency and authenticity spreads. This style of teaching

is challenging, frustrating, exhausting and only infrequently rewarding. Those few moments, however, make it worth the effort.

In the classroom I stress individuality, responsibility for self, a plan for the future, and authenticity. I attempt to be non-judgmental, to establish trust and to disclose the existence of choice--options they have not considered. No subject is taboo that is in good taste and handled with respect.

As a result of these journeys into thinking, the wards gain a sense of personal identity, are more willing to take responsibility for their thoughts and consequently, their behavior, and ultimately gain a sense of their obligation to be informed, to know what they value, to make decisions, to matter, to be human.

Students in the college and high school classes have read such authors as Hemingway, Faulkner, Dostosvsky, Baldwin etc. These stories, because of their subject matter, were most accessible. All contained issues each student was familiar with, basic issues of life. As we discussed the stories it became apparent that the issues crossed all boundaries of time, were human issues and belonged as much to the wards as any other potential readers. From these readings and the journal writing (a part of each class on a weekly basis--ungraded) the wards became freer, more introspective and began to write their own expressions via essays, short stories and poetry. They often became places where the wards worked out their own concerns about life and death and how you live a life. Although I gave more homework than other teachers it seemed to be something they liked. I would often hear how one or another ward stayed up so late he was writing in the dark. Clearly the rewards here were intrinsic and that recalled to my mind the Harlow and Butler experiments done in the fifties.

IF YOU PUT A MONKEY IN A SKINNER BOX HE CAN QUICKLY LEARN TO

PERFORM A COMPLEX AND PHYSICALLY TAXING SERIES OF SKILLS
THAT
WILL CAUSE A PANEL TO OPEN AND A BANANA TO BE DELIVERED.
WHEN
HE'S HAD ENOUGH BANANAS HE'LL QUIT. BUT, IF INSTEAD OF
DELIVERING A BANANA THE PANEL OPENS AND HE CAN LOOK OUT
AND SEE
SOMETHING HE HAS NEVER SEEN BEFORE HE'LL CONTINUE TO WORK
INDEFINITELY OR IF THE SKILLS REQUIRED ARE CHALLENGING--IN
THE
NATURE OF A PUZZLE-THE MONKEY WILL CONTINUE TO WORK FOR
THE
INTRINSIC PLEASURE OF THE TASK FAR LONGER THAN FOR ANY
FOOD
REWARD.

And that is the most important thing I learned from my students and the most important thing I have to pass along to you.

During the almost five years I have taught this class we have produced two books of the ward's writing. These books did not come easily. The writing in them represents many a rewrite, long hours of self discipline. Now I would like to read some excerpts from those books.

Relevance is the key. Not every inmate is destined to embark on a four year college program. Some will. Some will be able to tackle two year programs and some should be taught social and communication skills and guided toward a vocational education. All should be taught life skills. (This would include consumer skills, interpersonal skills, nutrition and health and enough basic law and government to function as responsible citizens.)

And so, less than 2 years ago, I began teaching off and on in the high school--in that remaining 92% of the population of the institution. The most remarkable thing I noticed in the beginning was the tremendous difference in attitude. The ward's set for the classroom was entirely different. They were there against their will--they were going to do their time. At the price of boredom they would resist knowledge and new experiences. They were absolutely

determined to waste their time.

How could I possibly transfer the experience the 8% had to the 92%? I couldn't but in each class I would see one, sometimes two, students who, in a different setting, could have that experience. I began to pull them out and in the evening with proven students from the college program we would discuss ideas and write. In no time wards from what we call "the line" were stopping me and inquiring about how they too could join this group. Obviously we could not take into the group all those that asked. But, a plan developed. I was allowed to choose students from among the best and the brightest and the process, with modest modifications, began again. (Now I often see some of those faces in my college classes.) What I have learned from this is what I suspected all along. Elitism is the name of the game. This may seem to go against our democratic grain but does it really. Can any of you say you have not joined this or that group or sought approval or validation through such a membership. By spreading oneself thin you reach few but by focusing on the ones you can help you allow their successes to pull the others along. You create a "gang" they want to belong to. After all, the reason most criminals have for joining gangs are not so alien to the mainstream. It is what happens after they join that is damaging. We need to tap into the need they have that drove them to join the gang in the first place. We need to exploit the loyalty, the ability to work for common goals, and the need to belong.

I have seen wards in a high school classroom read stories written by other wards and be filled with disbelief and at the same time a new kind of hope. Relevant subject matter, combined with innovative approaches reaches these young people and when they are reached their self-confidence, feeling of self-worth, and helpfulness increases. We must educate for living as well as for earning. We must emphasis courage, the taking of emotional risks, trying new

behaviors. I believe education is the answer to the hard problems now confronting adjudicated youths and those entrusted with their guidance. I believe people can only be motivated by the real and relevant and only committed when they come to trust and respect themselves.

We cannot afford to ignore the growing signs of discontent exploding in violence in big cities throughout the nation. We shudder to realize gang members are killing other gang members. Should these desperate gangs (as some recent information indicates) join and become a major economic force how then will we convince them of their obligation to themselves as human beings. We must think about prevention, not repression. It may be we are all born as sociopaths but through education, enculturation, we become "human". After all, at the heart of the American dream is the notion of accumulating money and we have made our Jesse James', our Godfathers, our robber barons, heroes. Is it any wonder that in the barrio or ghetto the man with the fastest and flashiest is the hero, indeed a model? Pimp, pusher, con man. When a value is being able to say, "When I was in San Quenten. . ."

Certainly there is going to be no relief from criminal offenses committed by the young, at least not in the near future. Through education, however, some of these young men may return to their former environments and, by their own example, bring positive change. Any hope we have for the future lies there, not in building more and larger holding pens. And most surely the taxpayer will one day want to know how effective we are.

Relevance--Respect--Responsibility. These can only be bound together with the overriding virture of courage on the part of both student and teacher. It is a challenge but I'm here to tell you it has high moments. I am forever indebted to the California Youth Authority for the support they have given me in the development of new curricula and program. The methods developed over this

past five years are now being examined by San Francisco State University in a research project comparing essays written by students at their university and essays written by my students being held in the California Youth Authority. The purpose of this research is to discover what students will express as being important to them when given the opportunity for such expression. It is their hope that the results of this work will aid understanding of our society and culture as well as impact on some educational methods.

GENTLEMEN:

I think there is often confusion about our goals for the semester. Some students think they are here to get a grade. Others feel they are merely interested in staying on the program. Some students are interested in learning but have had poor academic experiences in the past.

We call this an English class so you expect to learn something about punctuation, sentence structure, etc. I could certainly go to the blackboard and write endless rules. You could take notes and memorize those rules and periodically we could have an exam and you could feed those rules back to--mind you. I already know those rules and your evidence of having memorized them would in no way demonstrate to me you could use them or you had learned much about communication. You have probably been exposed to classrooms where that is all that is expected of you and you will doubtless be exposed to such classrooms again--but, that won't cut it here. In this classroom you have the opportunity to think and express your ideas. This is an arena. It necessarily follows that we won't always agree and there is no absolute answer to many of the complicated ideas we will examine.

I also realize this environment is not one in which you are accustomed to disagreeing--to thinking for yourselves, but that is what I want for the few hours we are together in this room. I want opinions born of thought. I merely ask that these opinions be presented in a thoughtful and courteous manner and when we disagree among ourselves we respect one another's opinions. It is through this exchange of ideas we will grow and experience other worlds. I cannot emphasize too strongly how important it is that you think, form your own ideas and present them both in discussion in this room and on your weekly papers. We will think of this as a class in reading, writing and reasoning.

I often hear students discussing what they think their instructor wants and how they try to slant their work to that instructor's notions, figure out what the instructor wants to hear and give it to her/him. The only learning that takes place under those circumstances is a rather transparent form of manipulation.

It is true I expect your papers to be written and re-written, perfected, clear, neat, polished presentations of <u>your own ideas.</u> If they are clear, neat, but obviously someone else's thoughts or party line superficial rehashings of other people's thoughts I will know it and I will not be happy about it.

We are all individuals and we must respect our right to think for ourselves and even more important, we must take responsibility for what we think. We must establish a set of values, know what we like and what we don't and own it. Knowing what you really think and taking responsibility for it is a major step toward authentic communication.

I do not want to come to this classroom and stand around passing out and gathering papers. This is an engagement. Once each week we are engaged in learning, in thinking, in expressing what we think. We will, using these steps, learn by necessity, the methods for critical thinking and effective written communication.

Lastly, I want you to realize thinking is a try-till-you-win process. It requires a kind of courage. Most of us are afraid to express an idea or thought we have because we are afraid it will bring the horselaugh from someone, we will look the fool--but I'm here to tell you like something written on stone that anyone who cannot risk failure, cannot succeed. Very few things come out right the first time. Think of people you admire, people you feel have accomplished things in life. How many times do you imagine they failed

before they hit the mark? And so it will be for each of you. I have seen it happen before in this room. I have seen students find, within themselves, valuable resources they did not know they possessed and I have seen the pride they felt in that discovery. I have also seen how hard they worked for it and shared a little in their pride.

You have doubtless heard I am difficult, assign a great deal of work, expect much. It is all true. Because of that I try to see each of you on an individual basis in the cottage at least twice in the semester to go over any specific problems you may encounter.

Welcome to the adventure.

Meredith S. Whaley, Cuesta Instructor

THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF INMATES IN THE KINGSTON PRISON FOR WOMEN (P4W)

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This article reports the outcome of a comprehensive assessment of the educational (academic and vocational) needs of inmates in Canada's only federal penal institution for females, the Kingston Prison For Women. The assessment took into account the personal, interpersonal and political-economic factors that were relevant to the delivery of educational programs under the direction of the institution.

As a research tool a needs assessment facilitates the identification and prioritization of both inmate and program needs. The outcome of this analysis is a delineation of expressed needs and an outline of decision choices. This sort of accurate up to date information is necessary for policy development, program planning and funding allocation.

The following list of major components in a needs analysis provides an outline for this report:

1. Review of program background and related literature.
2. Provision of a needs framework that employs a common terminology for describing and analyzing needs, services and goals.
3. Description of methods for collecting, analyzing and summarizing information.
4. Present the outcome and analysis of testing, interviews, and observation.
5. Outline conclusions and decision choices.

Background

The apparent ineffectiveness of traditional approaches to correctional treatment, high recidivism, and the rising costs of incarceration necessitate that programs for offenders be viewed as investments. Moreover, increasing crime rates, more aggressive and articulate inmates, women's liberation, and the call for equal rights programs and services have made the correctional treatment of the female offender a public issue. Consequently, correctional services are political and their payoffs are closely scrutinized.

Careful planning of correctional programs requires valid and reliable in-

formation. Unfortunately, the sort of information needed for educational planning is in short supply. Current criminological theory and research, the outcome of pertinent evaluation research, federal management review reports, and other official documents reveal that the female offender has become the focus of considerable attention and controversy. Little of the massive amount that has been written about the female offender deals with her educational capabilities, concerns, and learning styles (Bishop, 1931; Giallambardo, 1966; Smith, 1962; Ross, 1980; Ward and Kassebaum, 1966; and Smart, 1976).

Explanations of female criminality range from blatantly sexist assertions about female physiology, the nature of their sexual response, masculinization, and their inherent deceitfulness (Pollak, 1961) to reverse sexism that blames female crime on male domination and oppression (Smart, 1976). Agreement exists, however, that current trends in female crime reflect changes in role expectations that find women, who have been socialized into dependence, becoming heads of households and on their own in a time of diminished opportunities. Many women are unemployable, uneducated, unskilled, and able to access few legitimate opportunitites (Bowker, 1980; Smith, 1979).

Literature dealing with the rehabilitation of the female offender overwhelmingly documents that their correctional treatment is not as well planned, supported, or implemented as that provided for males (Ross, 1980). Women are usually provided fewer and poorer quality services (Brodsky, 1975; Berzins and Cooper, 1982).

The situation of the female offender is usually explained as a result of the relatively low number of women incarcerated. That is, the number of women in prisons is so small that the savings associated with large scale programs cannot be realized. Small scale, high cost programs simply cost too much to be justified. Other explanations for the situation of the incarcerated female

include such things as the lack of public interest in this group of offenders because of the nondramatic character of their crimes, low profile of inmate militancy, male chivalry, sexual stereotypes, paternalism, and differential less severe treatment of women by the criminal justice system (Ross, 1980). In addition, when women are concentrated a population is created that usually has a range of security classifications that results in a higher than necessary level of security to provide for the requirements of a relatively small proportion of the prisoners. This high level of security hampers flexibility in programming and individualization (Sorensen, 1981).

The Prison For Women

A probe as to whether or not to close The Prison For Women has produced a number of useful and searching examinations of this facility and its programs. The current resolution in favor of keeping the institution in operation has been justified in part on the basis of benefits that can be derived from the economy of scale (Berzins and Cooper, 1982). The will to realize these benefits is becoming evident as additional resources are beginning to be directed to this facility and new programs are established (Menard, 1983).

Although recent management reviews and evaluation reports have consistently referred to the special needs of offenders in The Prison For Women no comprehensive study has yet been undertaken.

A survey of Canadian prison education programs, The OISE Report (1978), affirmed the importance of considering the special nature of the female offender and the variety of needs that must be taken into account in planning academic and vocational programs for women. Much of the report's treatment of female offenders focused on the provision of education opportunities for non-traditional roles, individualization, flexibility in programming, and attention.

In what appears to be the most comprehensive reported assessment of the ed-

ucational needs of female offenders, Sorensen (1981) found that the literacy level of women in the Dwight Correctional Center, a maximum security facility much like The Prison For Women, resembled the distribution found in the general population. One-fifth of the inmates were functionally illiterate, reading below the grade six level. Sixty percent of the women could read at the eighth to twelfth grade levels. Although literacy was not related to age, it was related to grade level.

Sixty-eight percent of the population felt that participation in educational programs would help them gain parole. Two-thirds of these inmates did not, however, participate regularly in the institution's educational programs. When women were asked why they were not participating in programs most indicated that they simply preferred doing other things. Only a small percent thought that school was too difficult or not interesting. Subjects with the highest literacy levels were the most likely, however, to challenge the usefulness and choice of programs offered.

Eighty-four percent of the women had previous work experience. The most common occupations were factory and clerical work. Vocational counseling was cited as the number one expressed need of these women. They wanted skills to help them locate and attain jobs.

Strong academic interest was expressed in the areas of health, child development and law. These were considered essential survival areas.

The author emphasized the importance of the finding that most of the women selected job areas that were realistically in reach if proper education and training were available. The areas most often selected were drug counseling, business administration, music, art, and home economics.

Needs Assessment Framework

An important component in a needs assessment is the provision of a conceptual framework that defines how the term need is used, an outline of who are the stakeholders in the enterprise, and what services and target areas were scrutinized.

A number of problems exist in conceptualizing educational need. Often it is difficult to distinguish between a genuine need and a felt need or desire. Because human needs are infinite, all felt needs cannot be identified and met. Even if some are identified they may not be appropriate for consideration within the goals of a correctional service. Inmates in The Prison For Women are not solely independent subscribers to available services. Therefore, the personal needs of inmates that are relevant are those needs that can be realistically addressed in relation to the philosophy and objectives of the prison's education and training division. For these reasons felt needs do not mean a great deal in themselves. They must be interpreted in context, in relation to organizational aims. This is not to suggest that individual interests are not relevant. Rather, all needs must be assessed in relation to the stated reasons for providing educational opportunities in prisons. Thus, educational need in this context refers to shortfalls on various program objectives that are of significant consequence. That is, the filling of these needs should be of significant benefit to inmates in terms of overall organizational goals. Significance should be reflected in explicit decision choices that take into account the background and potentially available resources associated with efforts to provide programs.

Stakeholders

This assessment surveyed all individuals who have a stake in efforts to provide academic and vocational education programs in The Prison For Women.

Included are such important groups as employers, interested citizens, community agencies, other educational facilities, and certification bodies.

Services and Targets

The concept of need being employed here implies a difference between a condition that should optimally exist. This view assumes that there are needs among inmates that can be met by programs available to them on a voluntary basis while in prison. Thus, all services associated with programs that fell within the jurisdiction of education and training were seen as the legitimate focus of this assessment. Consequently, in an effort to match needs and services it was important to determine the following:

1. Whether or not resources were accessible and responsive to inmates who need and want them,

2. Whether there were needs that no resources exist to meet,

3. Because distribution of resources reflect the importance assigned by allocating bodies it was important to assess these priorities and to determine if high priority needs were being met in preference to lower priority needs.

These general areas of need assessment were further specified by looking at assessment targets in terms of the following types of need and appropriate data sources:

1. Normative need or needs as defined by service providers.

This need requires the establishment of desirable standards which if met indicate that a need is or is not being met. A large portion of the service provided by corrections deals with needs that are unknown or unwanted by inmates. Thus, it was necessary to obtain information from service providers, program administrators, and other key informants in the corrections field. As professionals who service or seek to understand the needs of inmates they have a normative perception of need and provided informed and expert opinion in the following areas:

1. What needs of inmates in the institution were not being met.

2. Whether or not under present circumstances needs can ever be met adequately.

3. Whether there was unnecessary duplication or competition among service providers.

4. What services are required to respond to unmet needs.

5. Where responsiblity lies for responding to unmet needs.

6. What obstacles prevent inmates from receiving the services they need.

7. What resources exist or are needed in order to more adequately meet inmate needs.

2. Criterion needs are needs that are defined by comparison to other groups or through the use of standardized tests.

In the needs assessment this target was addressed by determining the functional literacy levels and learning styles of inmates.

Functional Literacy

As used here functional literacy refers to reading with a purpose. That is, reading related to social utility, an ability to engage effectively in reading activities that are necessary and expected of literate adults in Canadian society.

The position taken here is that literacy is a multifaceted phenomena that cannot be assessed properly by merely using level equivalent scores. Grade levels and grade level equivalent scores leave uncertain what performances are implied by the grade level achieved. For these multiple criteria for assessing functional literacy are required.

Learning Style

On intake inmates vary in terms of educational background, achievements, and competencies. Extant assessments and profiles used for classification purposes need to be supplemented with information about the ways inmates differ

in how they learn and deal with learning tasks. This dimension of educational need has been labeled learning style (Hunt and Sullivan, 1974) and has been found to influence whether or not learners are interested in education (Dunn and Dunn, 1978).

Learning style appears to depend on certain social, perceptual, and psychological inclinations that influence the way educational activities are attended to and approached.

3. Felt needs or wants refer to individual inmates' expressed interests, needs and demands for service.

Felt needs were identified through surveying the prison population in terms of the following:

1. Problems inmates are experiencing,
2. Educational needs these problems create,
3. Which educational needs were being met and which are not being met,
4. Particular combination of needs that were unmet,
5. Perceived obstacles that prevented needs from being met,
6. Of the needs that were unmet, which were the most pressing,
7. How well were school programs functioning to meet inmate needs,
8. What additional programs and services were needed.

Method

Subjects

All stakeholders described previously were involved in the needs assessment. Included were the entire population of approximately 100 inmates, school instructors, and related support and administrative staff. Additional informants were obtained from interested groups in the community, including a number of released or paroled inmates.

Assessment Materials

Multiple data sources were employed in the needs assessment in order to offset the biases of each sector surveyed.

Normative Need

In addition to participant observation and informal interviewing, a modified form of the questionnaires employed in the OISE review were used with instructors, administrators and other informants. Some of the items used covered such factors as class size, classroom conditions, inmate interest and motivation, curriculum needs, program goals and objectives. Interview time for each informant did not exceed one hour.

Criterion Need

Functional Literacy

For the purpose of assessing functional literacy the reading sections (1 and 2) of the TABE were administered. TABE or the Tests of Adult Basic Education are a series of achievement tests in reading, mathematics, and language. These areas cover what are considered to be the basic skills required to function in society. The test items reflect language and content appropriate for use with adults. Understanding and application of basic information and principles are given priority over specific knowledge of facts. TABE allows for the selection of tests on three levels: easy, medium, and difficult. Corresponding grade equivalents are 2-5, 5-7, and 7-9. Section 1 of TABE deals with reading vocabulary. Section 2 covers reading comprehension. The eighty-two items can take up to a minute each to complete.

Learning Style

The Individual Learning Style Profile (Dunn and Dunn, 1978) consists of 21 elements describing the major influences on learning style. Coverage includes noise level, light level, temperature, design of learning situation, motiva-

tion, authority needs, learning mode (auditory, tactile, visual, kinesthetic), intake needs, time needs, and mobility needs. The Profile consists of 104 true-false statements that require about one hour to administer. Modified forms are available for students who do not read or read below grade 3 levels.

Felt Needs

Felt needs were assessed using the Educational and Vocational Needs Survey developed by Sorensen (1981). This survey was designed to assess the academic and vocational needs of incarcerated women. The questionnaire was adapted from an instrument developed for use in California federal, state, and local prisons (LEAA, 1977). This instrument yields case by case information.

The first section of the questionnaire covers demographic characteristics, attitudes toward educational programs, and work history. The next section employs 48 items to deal with educational needs by asking respondents how well they are able to cope with everyday problems. Each survival skill is covered twice. One question asks them if they have the skill and the other asks if they want to improve it. Respondents' self image, level of life skills, and perceived program needs are covered. The third portion of the survey asks respondents to select four of fifty-four areas (sex role and non sex role stereotypic) of vocational interest. Finally, the last sections contain 37 categories of academic interest from which inmates are asked to select four. This five page questionnaire takes approximately 35 minutes.

Normative Need

OISE Questionnaire

A. Educational Administrator (N=1)

The respondent indicated that inmate motives for involvement in educational programs range from the placement of an intrinsic value in education to a belief that it will improve chances for parole. On the whole he has found

that inmates are less interested in education than non-inmates. He finds, however, little difference in the academic abilities of these groups. He has found that once inmates are involved in educational programs they appear not to be motivated by pay levels.

He observed that no relation appears to exist between type of conviction, educational interest and eventual success or failure in the school situation.

The age range of women in school programs is about the same as the whole population of the prison. Inmates in general are accurate in placing themselves in programs that reflect their abilities.

The school does an adequate job of counseling and guiding inmates as to what educational opportunities exist in the institution. No inmate is refused a program because of the size limitations of existing offerings. The school program operates on a continuous intake basis.

Inmates in school work harder than inmates in other prison programs. The best class size was reported to be between 4-6 pupils. Approximately forty percent leave school after completing the program and about sixty percent leave the program before completion for a variety of reasons.

Minorities, slow learners, and the physically handicapped have special needs that are not being met by the present school program.

The main objective of the program would be educational and to help the inmate complete her sentence more easily rather than improving her chances for employment. The schools programs are, nevertheless, the best preparation for employment on release.

He ranked the adequacy of support for parts of the school program as follows: classrooms, shop equipment, supplies, contract approvals, administrative support for program innovations, and representation at senior policy levels--good; staffing, filling of vacancies, staff training and inmate trans-

fers--acceptable; class and shop space, repairs to classrooms, shops, and equipment, obtaining information and recording information about inmates--poor; clerical support, institutional recognition of the importance of education in corrections by senior staff--unacceptable.

Educators in prisons must be as concerned with the inmates' personality as with their lack of knowledge in a particular subject area. Generally inmates can be considered educationally as adults and emotionally as adolescents. They should not have control over the learning situation. Educational programs should be fairly structured.

Non-Educational Administrators (N=9)

Four respondents indicated that inmates were no more interested in education than any other part of prison life. Two suggested that inmates sought education programs in order to avoid less agreeable work. Two respondents declared that they were unable to judge inmate interests. Finally, one respondent indicated that inmates were often motivated by the potential value of education for personal growth and potential occupational application. The majority (66.7%) of respondents agreed that pay level was not a significant factor in inmate participation. The other portion of the sample indicated that pay level might entice an inmate into a program but would not be sufficient to keep her involved.

The non-educational administrators agreed (77.8%) that inmates have the same levels of ability as non-inmates. The majority were also of the opinion that inmates in school programs worked as hard as others in other institutional activities. A good portion (66.7%) considered education as more useful than other activities in preparing inmates for life outside of the institution. The remainder of the respondents considered education no more useful in this regard than other programs.

The most important opportunities education provides are opportunities to improve inmates feelings of self worth and chances of finding satisfactory employment after release. Least important was its potential to enable inmates to work in other parts of the institution and to help inmates to complete their sentence more easily.

In comparison to the ideal expressed above the existing program was thought by 66.7% to actually contribute to social and individual responsibility, 88.8% considered that the school actually contributed to the development of self worth, 66.7% indicated that school work helps inmates to relate actions to logic, 88.9% believe that it improves inmates chances of getting a job after release. No agreement was evident as to whether school helps inmates work in other parts of the prison. Finally, 55.6% indicated that education programs help inmates complete their sentence more easily.

When asked if educators should attempt to deal with the criminality of inmates, seven said yes but four qualified this by adding that educators should devote their attention primarily to school subjects.

Teachers (N=9)

Three of the teachers responding had been working for one year or less, two had worked under four years, and four had been teaching for between six and eight years. Most taught under four to six subjects. One instructor taught in eight or more areas.

Most of the classes (77.8%) had 4-6 inmates as students. This was considered to be a desirable class size. The respondents in this group indicated that most inmates usually stay with a class 6 to 8 months.

This group reports that a majority (55.6%) of students are in part time programs, the remaining 44.4% were full time students in the schools various programs.

Five of the nine surveyed indicated that on the basis of their supervision of part time students, vocational and academic subjects should be combined into full time programs.

This group overwhelmingly (77.7%) believes that inmates select education because they think that it improves their chances for parole. Almost half (44.4%) felt that pay levels motivate inmates to begin and continue in educational programs. The group was not sure, however, if inmates were any more interested in education than non-inmates.

All of the teachers have taught outside of a correctional setting and find in comparison with non-inmates that inmates have less ability. According to this group the average age of students was between the ages of 23 and 37. Moreover, they have found that inmates actually operate one level below the level they claim to have attained.

The teachers were split as to supporting the claim that inmates are well informed and advised as to what programs are available through the institution. Most of the teachers did not know the number of requests for particular courses. Half of the teachers claimed that there were waiting lists for courses, the other half said there were no waiting lists.

Five of the teachers found that they were unable to compare the work done in school with other programs in the prison. Four thought that some aspects of school work were the hardest kind of work.

The normal duration of the programs offered ranged from 3 to more than 18 months. The teachers create much of their curriculum, adapt it from existing materials and according to the needs of inmates. Five of the eight programs offered are accredited by the school board.

Most of the teachers were satisfied with the school's physical layout and equipment supplied.

Reported teaching styles were primarily individualistic with other modes being employed as needed.

Three types of tests are given: written (88.9%); oral (77.8%); and practical (55.5%).

Eight of the teachers stated that the next logical step for inmates after completing currently offered programs was more advanced education. The teachers were equally divided as to whether or not this advanced education should go on in or outside of the prison.

Almost all of the teachers felt that they should be concerned with inmate criminality. Half of these suggested, however, that most of their efforts be directed toward teaching and the subjects being studied.

Overall the teachers believe that the most important advantage of education was to improve students sense of self worth. The least important was to enable inmates to work in other parts of the institution. Thus, the two major contributions of the overall program are to improve inmate sense of self worth and to complete their sentence more easily.

The teachers agree that although the inmates are adults they are in some respects emotionally immature. Consequently, the adult education model used in prisons requires more structure. Almost uniformly, this group of teachers felt that there should be some university based courses dealing with correctional education.

Inmates (N=49)

From the group of 49 inmates responding from the total population of the prison (102) 71.4% indicated that they are presently enrolled in an educational program, 26.5% are in academic classes 11-13; 24.5%, 9-10; 6.19%, 1-8, 6.19%, other programs; 4.19%, apprenticeships and 10.2% are in post secondary courses.

Given a choice of full or part time classes or shop, 44.9% want full time, 20.9% prefer part time, and 14.3% choose correspondence courses.

The majority of women have all of their instruction in the institution. Only 8.2% indicated that they go outside for courses.

Preference for full or part time studies was spread along several choices: 16 women wanted full time, 12 wanted half day school and half day work, 8 would like half day school and half day craft, 5 preferred part time evening study, and 4 wanted half day school and half day vocational training.

The majority (65.3%) of women consider themselves highly motivated regarding education. Only 5 indicated that it was a way to get parole and another five that it was a way to get out of less agreeable work. Three women thought that education was no more meaningful than any other kind of activity.

Over half (53.1%) of the respondents indicated that they would stay in the program regardless of pay levels. Although 40% could not say, the rest were equally divided as to education being as hard or easy as expected.

A slight majority (53.2%) said that the educational programs that were available met their needs and interests. A similar majority indicated that they have both basic and advanced courses. Less than half (45%) said that information about programs was readily available and that the wait for new courses was not unreasonably long.

The group was equally split as to the difficulty of combining academic and vocational programs. Education was felt by 44.8% to be harder and 40.8% to be easier than other work in the institution.

Slightly over half (51%) had been involved in educational programs in other penal institutions.

Education was hoped by 46.9% of the women to lead to future employment and believed by 36.7% to lead to more educational programs.

A majority (69.4%) of the inmates indicated that education was contributing to their self worth, 59.2% of the inmates found it to be important in developing a person's awareness and appreciation of other people, 44.9% found it was of least importance to inmates in enabling them to work in other parts of the prison. Education was considered by 44.9% to be directly related to life outside the institution and 51% thought that it was more helpful than any other activity in preparation for life outside the institution.

As to how much control inmates should have of their education, 34.7% thought full control and 24.5% some control of what they learn. Partial structure of the programs was selected by 38.8% and no structure by 34.7%.

The age range of respondents was from 19 and under to 44. The majority of women were between 20 and 34 years old. The length of time being served was 3 or less years, 42.9% and ten or more years, 28.6%.

The facilities and equipment used for education was considered adequate by 57.1% and inadequate by 18% of the respondents.

Section Summary

Obvious major differences exist in the perceptions of the various groups that have a stake in the prison's education programs.

Beliefs as to what motivates inmates to take educational programs were highly divergent. The inmates (65.3%) claim that education has intrinsic value. Teachers (77.7%) believe that inmates take educational programs in the hope of obtaining early parole. A good portion of non-educational administrators (44.4%) consider inmates no more interested in education than any other activity. The educational administrator contended that inmate motives were too varied to categorize.

Inmate abilities were felt to be less than non-inmates by 44.4% of the teachers and equal to non-inmates by non-educational administrators.

Inmate and teachers both consider education to contribute to a person's self-worth. Non-educational administrators consider equally important education's role in helping inmates find employment upon release. In contrast, the educational administrator indicated that the most important function of the educational program is to help inmates complete their sentences more easily. The uniformly lowest ranked function of education was its capacity to enable inmates to work in the other parts of the prison.

The largest portion of inmates (53.1%) said that they would select education programs regardless of pay levels. Teachers, however, thought that pay was an important factor in inmate motivation. The non-educational administrators (66.7%) indicated that inmate participation was not significantly affected by inmate pay levels.

Criterion Need

A. Functional Literacy

The assessment of functional literacy needs involved the administration of the TABE and contrasting it with the previously administered SCAT.

School and College Abilities Test II (SCAT)

The aim of this test is to assess that amount and nature of previous schooling. Two areas are covered: Verbal (Analogies) and Quantitative (Reasoning Problems). This material is structured in such a way that the test becomes increasingly difficult as the respondent encounters areas that he/she has not covered previously in a formal academic setting.

Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) (N=59)

The TABE is a series of adult achievement tests in reading, mathematics, and language. These areas are considered to be the basic skills required for successful social functioning. The language and content in each series are appropriate for adults. The TABE is a measure of understanding and application.

The SCAT is a measure of specific knowledge and recall.

Each series in the TABE can be administered on three levels of difficulty, easy, medium and difficult. Although the test was designed to fulfill a number of assessment and instructional needs, its primary use has been with adults with limited education and from a variety of cultural backgrounds.

Results from the TABE testing on the easy level (E-3) indicate that the mean grade level for this sample (N=17) was 4.94 (s.d.=1.03). The modal grade level for this group was 13 cases at the grade 5 level. Of the remaining 4 inmates, 2 were below grade 2, 1 at grade 3, and 1 at grade 4.

The medium difficulty test (M-3) was given to twenty inmates. The mean grade equivalent of this group was 8.15 (s.d.=1.98). Eight of this group had grade equivalents of 10. The range in this group was grade 3 to 10, mostly in grades 7 and 10.

On the most difficult form of the test (D-3), 16 inmates had a mean grade equivalent of 11.29 (S.D.=1.28) and a mode of 12. The grade range was 9 to 12 with subjects distributed across these grades.

The three difficulty levels of the TABE were transformed into scale scores in order to provide means to compare with SCAT scores. The total combined sample involving 53 cases results in a bimodal distribution of grade levels, 6.1 and 10.9 and a mean of 8.4 (s.d.=.88). A similar conversion of the SCAT (N=91) yielded a mean grade level of 7.19 (s.d.=2.99), and a range from 3 to 14. The heaviest distribution of cases fell between grades 3 and 8.

The TABE appears to make finer discriminations among cases and not to depress scores in the lower grade level.

Learning Style (N=39)

Results of the administration of the Individual Learning Style Profile yielded a description of 21 elements in four areas (environment, emotion,

social, and physical) that influence learning style.

In the area of environment the elements of sound, light, and design were of equal significance in terms of intensity and structure. For the element of temperature, however, the preference was clearly for higher temperature. Thus, for this group of inmates a warm learning environment is preferred to a cool or cold one.

In the area of emotions slight differences were found in the element of motivation and large differences in the elements of persistence and responsibility. These results indicate that 67.3% of inmates responded as being persistent in their learning styles. Moreover, 83.2% responded as being self-responsible in their learning style. According to Dunn and Dunn (1982) these elements should be correlated with motivation levels. In so far as this relationship is not present here, this configuration may be explained by the demands of life in a total institution. The inmates were divided in their need for structure, 40.3% did and 59.7% did not need structure.

Findings in the social area show that the majority of inmates prefer to work alone and not to have an authority figure present in the learning situation.

In the area of physical stimuli the mobility element was not considered an important factor. Preference was shown, however, for evening study. Food intake during study was not considered to be very important. Physical involvement of some sort (body movement, touching or hearing) was preferred in learning situations.

Felt Needs

Dwight Questionnaire (N=58)

According to this survey the mean grade completed by inmates was grade 8. The majority of the sample is currently taking a class and has taken a class

in the last 6 months. The most frequently cited reason for not taking a course was that they simply would rather spend their time in other ways. The next most cited reason was that none of the classes would be useful upon release. Most (69%) were in the age range of 21 to 40. Almost 71% felt that education counted in some way towards parole.

The women were almost equally divided as to wanting to work indoors or out.

Although most (71%) of the women had worked previously, a majority (69%) wanted vocational counseling.

More than half the women have not had to make major decisions in their lives and have not been challenged by difficult items such as contracts to read and understand. Somewhat less than half of the sample have never been interviewed for a job.

Inmates expressed the need to know more about public speaking, dealing with their anger, finding support services once in the community, child development, the functioning of their bodies, budgeting, saving, investing, doing their income tax, and buying insurance. The top areas in which the inmates want to learn more are use of the computer, applying for financial aid to complete their educations, and understanding their legal right.

In terms of vocational interests the following five occupations were most often chosen: photography, child care, cosmetology, small business, and clothing design.

The four areas of highest academic interest were child development, law, counseling, and English.

Qualitative Analysis Of Inmate Needs

This portion of the study involved participant observation and the formal and informal interviewing of inmates, personnel, and community groups that included released and paroled inmates and former staff or professionals associated with the Prison.

General comments:

The OISE report (1979), The Brief and Comments by the Canadian Association of Elizabeth Fry Societies (1981), The Case By Case Survey (1982), The National Council Of Women In Canada, Report on Kingston Prison For Women (1984) and subsequent Program Updates and Management Reviews have already pointed out many of the needs that have been identified in the present survey and have reported progress or lack of progress in responding to them. Because this was expected the major portion of the present involved trying to understand what was impeding the prison system from meeting the known needs of this group of inmates. The aim was to employ multiple methods and multiple perspectives that might, through their blending and cross validation, provide insight into the day to day operation and organization of the Prison.

Relative to many Federal Prisons the stability of the population, lack of conflict and violence, adequacy of resources, and high level of staff skills in the Prison For Women should enable it to become a model of how education and training can contribute constructively to rehabilitation. Much of the literature dealing with females in corrections points to the importance of economic rehabilitation through education and training (Chapman, 1980; Man, 1984). In this regard, the Prison For Women does not live up to its potential. The question is why?

Normative Need (N=45)

The Prison For Women has been well described by Johnson (1983) and the

school programs have been idealized in several overviews. The aim of this portion of the study was to gain insight into the prisons working from the perspectives of staff, associated professionals, and interested members of the outside community.

Felt Need (N=39)

The perspective of both present and past inmates is synthesized below and incorporates, as does the coverage of normative need, differing points of view on the Prison. In both cases only areas that were validated by separate reports and/or confirmed by other portions of the study were included.

Normative Needs	Felt Needs
Structured Portion of Interviews	
1. What E&T needs of inmates in P4W are not being met? Why?	1. What E&T programs have you been involved in during your time in this institution?
2. What services or resources are needed to meet these needs?	2. What did you expect to get out of them? Were your expectations met?
3. Is there duplication of or competition between services?	3. What helped or hindered you achieving expectations?
4. Who is responsible to see that these needs are being met?	4. How helpful have the school staff been? Other staff?
5. What obstacles prevent these needs from being met?	5. Are the facilities, equipment and materials for courses adequate?
6. What past experiences or characteristics of inmates need to be considered in providing their educational services?	6. Is there anything in your early home or school life that creates a problem in your current efforts to get an education?

OUTCOME

Four themes emerged from notes obtained from the interviews and during participant observation in the prison over a six month period. The following four themes act as organizers in presenting the outcome of the qualitative portion of this needs analysis: Education and Training; Formal and Informal Organization (School, Curriculum, Incentive System, and General Administration); Ethno-

centrism, Racism, and Sexism.

Education and Training

The school's layout is not well planned. Space is wasted.

The school and activity centre are difficult areas for Security. These are, however, special places that should be brought together and set off from the rest of the institution.

E&T are recognized as one of the oldest and most successful forms of corrections. Largely due to the efforts of current teaching staff the school is starting to realize its potential.

Inmates need a better orientation to what the school has to offer in the way of programs. While involved in the school inmates should be given better guidance and counseling than at present. Life skills should become part of the guidance area. Pre-release groups should be introduced to community support systems and realistic employment opportunities. This information needs to be coordinated with post-release groups. Moreover someone must gain a thorough knowledge of what is offered in the way of correspondence courses and assist inmates in this important area. In addition inmates leaving the program need to have developed marketable skills. The program offerings at some point should reflect planning that has astutely incorporated the realities of the job market.

The school has a better, more positive atmosphere than the rest of the prison.

Ranges are not good places to study. They are noisy and people think you are a snob if you want to do school work. The school needs more study areas that can be available in the evening.

The teachers are very good. More are needed. More tutors are also necessary. Getting individual attention is hard when demand is great.

A number of inmates expressed with almost surprise that they got more out of courses than they expected.

Although the institutional message is that school is a privilege, most inmates consider it a right.

Career days are not effective because everyone knows that there will be no followup. When information is requested it never materializes. Someone who knows about guidance and is able to give sufficient attention to correspondence courses is needed.

Inmates that are in school just to kill time are a nuisance. They drag everyone else down.

For some the school needs to be more structured. For others it should be flexible. Now it is too flexible and should provide students with a variety of situations.

Curriculum

Prisoners are involved in the school for a variety of reasons. The school has attempted to accommodate them by providing a variety of programs. This effort has shown the schools' flexibility, but has created too much variability and flux. Some inmates have taken advantage of this situation.

Remedial, upgrading and general offerings need to be coordinated. After an inmate has attained credits, certificates, skills or whatever there needs to be opportunity to practice and refine attainments.

A science program operating across levels is needed and would be possible with existing staff if equipment were made available.

Medical books are one of the most borrowed categories from the library. This unobstrusive measure of interest points to an area of need that could involve the better utilization of existing staff. Nursing and medical staff could teach in this area. This course offered in association with Recreation

may also facilitate its accreditation.

Agreement exists that employability, self esteem and literacy are appropriate aims of the school.

Many inmates are unaware of what courses are available. Courses that are available often are not the ones inmates want.

The shop has the potential to be a valuable learning situation. Now it is more industrial arts than trades training. A full program of one kind or another ought to be available. Materials that can be worked with, kept or sent home are needed.

Higher level science and biology courses are needed.

A photography course that includes processing and use of videotape would appeal to those interested in picture taking, modeling, and acting.

Formal and Informal Organization

School

In the last year the operation of the school has greatly improved.

Tension exists, however, in the relationship between CSC staff and school board staff. This is most obvious in the strain that exists between teachers and security staff. Teachers attempt to remain apart from security. This is usually more than a delineation of role functions. Teachers see their role as liberating as opposed to confining. Consequently, security staff are unsure of teachers' loyalties. In this instance they refer to incidents that involve danger and the safety of all involved.

The supervision of teachers by a CSC staff person creates an administrative contradiction in so far as the supervisor's educational philosophy, if one exists, is compromised by institutional demands. Evidence for this exists in the way that short term institutional needs are often given priority over the long term educational needs of inmates.

The AW in charge of programs has too big a job to properly coordinate and integrate them. Programs, consequently, vie for space, students and a foothold in the overall scheme of things.

Like most prison schools the one in P4W is operated by absentee landlords. The closest landlord is the school board's prison division administration. They are submerged in the operation of 5 prison schools. Then there is Regional Headquarters and finally Education and Training CSC, Ottawa. School staff find this administration distant and indifferent.

Incentive System and General Administration

Inmate pay should only become an issue when inmates are really into education programs. All pay levels should be available to those who deserve them regardless of length of sentence.

Most inmates have a "you owe me" attitude. This is countered in this prison by what is called the "carrot system." Rewards are supposed to be earned. The system should pay off if inmates obey its rules.

Although this is not the only incentive system possible in a prison, it can be operative providing that rewards appear to equal investments, the paths to payoffs are clear, and that it works with a predictable consistency. Unfortunately at P4W these criteria for success are lacking.

The prison's administration is perceived as erratic and arbitrary. Charges do not stick, policies are unclear, decisions are reversed, contrary orders are given.

The operation of the Work Board was the most frequently cited example. A well known need exists to coordinate case management and school program. The Work Board frustrates, rather than facilitates, this symmetrization. Decisions are inconsistent, agendas are not followed, minutes are incomplete and inaccurate. Job descriptions for inmates need to be produced, the Individual

Program Plan needs to be shared with education, and an adequate grievance procedure needs to be established.

Going to school involves financial sacrifice. Somehow this is supposed to be more like the real world. In reality it can be an insurmountable obstacle for many inmates.

Pay is important. It becomes even more important as one gets more involved in school. The idea that you must work and then go to school sounds right, but it also creates problems when the right time for going is missed or you find that you can never afford to go.

From top to bottom rules and regulations are interpreted inconsistently. One repeated example was yard time. This time is needed, but for some reason has been denied. One thing that is clear is that institutional needs take precedence over individual inmate needs. Work assignments can be changed overnight without explanation, e.g. going from school to kitchen duty. Outside work such as making name tags can stop other projects and interrupt programs.

Knowledge that an inmate finds school very important is often used as a means of control by threatening to end their continued participation.

Ethnocentrism, Racism, and Sexism

Contrary to the report by Davies (1984) there exist real and persistent problems of racism and ethnocentrism in the Prison For Women.

Non-English speaking inmates have expectable difficulties with school. Not much is done for them. The attitude appears to be that English is the language of instruction and inmates must adapt. This makes sense if an inmate is only aiming for employment or education in English speaking communities.

A different but not unrelated bias also exists in relation to Amerindian religious beliefs. Religious practice has to be negotiated with the administration in a way that can only be interpreted as lack of respect. Religious

meetings and visitations by Elders are dependent on the good will of the CSC Chaplaincy.

Although the dimensions of enthnocentrism are well known, its manifestation in P4W has added a twist of its own.

The belief held by both administrative and professional staff is that a good portion of native women in P4W are not good candidates for school programs because of brain damage due to drug and alcohol abuse. This perception was not confirmed by medical personnel. Another prevalent notion is that many of the natives as well as non-native women have been abused and exploited as children. Little has been done to test this assertation or examine its implication.

Blatant sexism has been sanitized from P4W. The institutional domestication of women inmates is hardly evident. The interests and attitudes of inmates, nevertheless, reflect the impress of the larger culture. Sexism is, however, still evident in administrative paternalism and in the infantilization of inmates by some security officers.

Native religious beliefs are not taken seriously or considered equal to the beliefs of others. The prison staff treat it as a nuisance.

Native women feel that lack of respect for their religious customs reflects widespread antagonism and discrimination in P4W.

CONCLUSION AND DECISION CHOICES

Looking across the various data sources made available several areas are important to note because of their absence. One area given little attention except for the expressed interest in parenting and child development courses are inmate expressed concerns for their own children and families. Another area is a widespread interest in non-sexist job training. These areas may well constitute needs for some inmates. They were not, however, offered spon-

taneously as particularly salient areas. This is interesting because much of the literature dealing with female inmates in the last few years gives considerable attention to this area. The findings presented here and a recent communication from Great Britain indicate a change in emphasis. McGurk, Stewart, and Ray (1984) reported the outcome of a survey of female inmate vocational interests in Britain using the Rothwell Miller Interest Vocational Blank (1982). This survey was undertaken to assist in the planning of courses for a new prison. One-third of the inmates without major psychological disorders and a reading age of at least ten from seven prisons having a variety of security classifications were randomly selected. The final sample was comprised of 187 cases. The resulting analysis revealed that the women's interests were generally in aesthetic, social service, medical, and persuasive activities. Particular interest in courses was shown in home economics, cookery and catering. Although correctional programs can be instructed by this kind of information, they are not a sufficient basis for the development of policy and long range planning. Thus, the focus of the decision choices presented below will be on fundamental issues. The previously outlined normative and felt needs did offer a number of decision choices that grow out of the day to day operation of the institution. Likewise they reinforce information obtained in the Case By Case Study and the various reviews conducted in the last few years. The intent of this study was to complement and not supplant this work.

General Observations And Decision Choices

1. An overabundance of courses is offered for inmates. While the monitoring of educational interests is desirable for the creation and assessment of special interest courses the primary thrust of the school should be in the provision of literacy programs, basic education (remedial and upgrading), and advanced courses. How this program is delivered ought to be planned and imple-

mented by the teaching staff.

2. Computers should be considered as a means to an end and not learned about as an end in themselves. Moreover, the computer is better used as a tool to aid in learning rather than a teaching device. Use of microcomputers can provide an introduction to word processing, actually compute, store and manipulate information, help in the editing and typing of essays, and entertain. To accomplish this an adequate software budget is needed.

3. Traditional notions of adult education are not applicable to inmates. Like all adult learners, however, the variability of their learning styles and differential need for structure must be considered in program planning. Additional consideration must be given to the realities of prison life and accumulated negative educational experiences and compounded deficits.

Although special preservice and continuing education are desirable, in the absence of specialized courses it is realistically in reach for the teachers involved in prison education to collectively support one another. To this end regular meetings and retreats run by teachers should be supported within and between prison schools.

4. Maslow's Need Hierarchy suggests that attention must be focused on the potential of education as economic rehabilitation before idealizing liberal studies. Although most women surveyed have been employed at one time, their foundation for connecting to the labor market is usually weak. Attention should, therefore, be directed toward understanding the needs of the job market and using the school to enhance the employability of inmates. This might be an area for Headquarters to play a larger role.

5. In many respects the numerous reports examining the role of education and training reflect an expectation that is unrealistic. The potential of education in corrections lies in the fact that it is not a form of treatment, not

something done to inmates. Rather, it facilitates inmates doing something to themselves. The responsibility for this action, the assumption of agency, lies with the inmate. Likewise credit for success and failure must be the inmates'.

For almost half a decade a promised clarification of the aims of Canadian prison education has been anticipated. Such an explication could help provide a needed overview of what is being attempted in the programs in the Prison For Women and might give prison schools direction.

6. Before major behavior changes can be facilitated, individuals often need to regress to a state of dependence and trust. Immature dependent security always precedes mature independence and dependence. The school staff provide some of the rare opportunities for this type of trust situation to develop outside of peer relationships in prison. Additional related services from a school guidance worker and a librarian could augment this important human dimension in correctional education.

7. The assertion that the pride of native people in themselves must precede any form of education and training is erroneous and self defeating. This assertion deflects effort and attention from the hard work necessary to overcome accumulated deficits and a history of educational failure. The effort to become more competent through education can go hand in hand with the development of pride in one's heritage. They are not contradictory, in opposition, or mutually exclusive. Presenting them as such creates another barrier to coming to terms with what it takes to survive anywhere in this world. For these reasons Native religious practice should be regularized and institutionally recognized by CSC. Native studies should be available as both part of special interest offerings and if warranted by the regular school program. Qualified native people should be added to the school staff. Native leaders should en-

courage inmates to take advantage of every opportunity provided by the school.

8. Inconsistency and unpredictability in an institution employing the "carrot system" fosters alienation and increases the likelihood of conflict. In such a system the school must endeavor to clearly specify paths to tangible rewards like credits, diplomas, and certificates. Justifiable trust in teachers can provide an important stabilizer. This trust should not be based on school staff standing in opposition or acting in ways contrary or antagonistic to the larger institution. This is difficult because prison schools often have a high school atmosphere to them. Not showing up for classes or following class activities are examples of rule violations that are often ignored in order to "hold" students. This type of minor game and major games such as inflating the school's role diminishes the school's credibility and trustworthiness.

Much of what inmates need in the Prison For Women has been known for some time. This needs analysis affirms a number of as yet unmet inmate needs and makes salient important areas that require attention. How the system will deal with them is hard to predict. Hopefully past history will not be repeated. In the Archambault Report (1938) the Commissioners argued that "the task of the prison should be, not merely the temporary protection of society through the incarceration of captured offenders, but the transformation of reformable criminals into law-abiding citizens." The report recommended the improvement of vocational and educational programs and proper classification of offenders. Further, the report noted that these changes had been recognized as essential over fifty years earlier but were still addressed with "little intelligence or effectiveness."

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THE EFFECTS OF INCARCERATION AND EDUCATION ON SELF-CONCEPT: CREATING A POSITIVE ROLE-PERSON MERGER

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ABSTRACT

A modified version of the Twenty Statements Test that was used to explore the effects of incarceration and education on self-concept. Subjects were upperclassmen in a 4-year college program in a state prison. The results give strong support for the positive effect of education on self-concept, in addition to demonstrating the negative effects of incarceration.

Role theory is used as a theoretical framework to discuss the implications for correctional educators. Utilizing Turner's construct of the role-person merger and Goffman's concepts of role distance and role embracement, the positive effects of a role-person merger are discussed. Tentative suggestions for implementation and practical application are offered.

Much of the research on the effectiveness of programs in correctional education focuses on external empirically verifiable outcomes such as rates of recidivism or post-incarceration employment. These are undoubtedly important measures of the effectiveness of correctional education. However, these measures inevitably tell but a part of the story of correctional education. Lower rates of recidivism could mean that educated former inmates are simply less likely to be apprehended. For the inmates serving long-term sentences, recidivism is certainly a less-than-adequate measure of outcomes. I would like to suggest that a more comprehensive picture of outcomes could be obtained by supplementing our research with qualitative measures of internalized outcomes. One such outcome would be the effect of participation in educational programs on self-concept.

Before I report our findings, let me begin by describing my objectives and identifying my assumptions. They are as follows:

1. The ultimate goal of all education, and the primary task of every individual is personal human development.
2. Human development takes place through individual choices and commitments.
3. In that choices are both a cause and a product of self-concept, human development and the development of the individual's self-concept are inextricably linked.
4. To the extent that any entity inhibits human development, it is an alienating and dehumanizing force. To the extent that it facilitates human development, it is a source or reconciliation and a means of humanization.

The primary task before each individual is human development. We each have a self that can be invested and developed. To avoid this task of self-

creation is to live what Kierkegaard has described as an "inauthentic existence." This task has been described as self-actualization, becoming a whole person, authenticating one's existence, and here, as human development. Ultimately, in every case, we are describing the process by which an individual creates the self.

This process of human development occurs as individuals make choices and commitments. For example, the high school graduate is faced with the decision of whether or not to continue his or her formal education. If higher education is chosen, a sequence of choices follows. These might include: the choice between a liberal arts and a vocational curriculum; a public or private institution; a choice of a major; theoretical frameworks; worldview assumptions; tentative career commitments; and so forth.

It should be clear that all of these choices and commitments have far-reaching implications for the development of the self. I am a radically different person than I was ten years ago, because of my choices. I have changed, and in a sense created, myself. I believe this is what Victor Frankl had in mind when he suggested that "values do not push a man, they pull him." The choices that I make, external to myself, pull me in a particular direction, and eventually become a part of what I call myself. The choices that I make are an extension of my self, as well as a dynamic force acting upon the development of my self.

Given this view of human development, the next question before us is, what is the effect of institutionalization, particularly incarceration, on human development? Psychologist Karl Menninger, author of The Crime of Punishment, describes the effect in these terms:

> The frustration of the prisoner's ability to make choices...involves a profound threat to the prisoner's self-image because it reduces the prisoner to the weak, helpless, dependent status of childhood...The im

> prisoned criminal finds his picture of himself as a self-determining individual being destroyed by the regime of the custodians.

Nearly every inmate in prison is there as the result of a poor choice. When the inmate is released ten, twenty or thirty years later, he will be barraged with that multitude of choices that Alvin Toffler describes as "future shock." When looked at in this way, it seems odd that we create a social structure that limits, retards, and possibly destroys the individual's ability to make meaningful, positive choices. The choice-making process that facilitates self-creation is beaten down, and ultimately replaced with the learned helplessness that results in the dehumanizaton of the inmate.

Fyodor Dostoevysky once suggested that a society's level of civilization could be determined by an examination of its prisons. If we accept his premise, and if I am right about the impact of incarceration in our penal systems, we may well be a nation of barbarians.

Brazilian educator and philosopher Paolo Freiere suggests that:

> Any situation in which some men prevent others from engaging in the process of inquiry is one of violence. The means used are not important; to alienate men from their own decision-making is to change them into objects... This movement of inquiry must be directed towards humanization--man's historical vocation.

I am suggesting that our penal system, as it exists, is an alienating, dehumanizing force. I am also suggesting that education is a humanizing force, and that in this context, it is therefore a source of reconciliation. I would like to share with you the results of some research that might illustrate this point.

Sociologist Manford Kuhn has developed the Twenty Statements Test as an instrument to measure self-concept. The test involves twenty responses to the question "Who am I?", with each response beginning with "I am." The end result is a list of nouns and adjectives that describe roles and statuses that

we occupy, as well as traits and characteristics that we exhibit. This may be the closest we can come to having a snapshot of the self-concept.

One of the criticisms that has been leveled at the Twenty Statements Test is that it does not situationally locate the self. To a great extent, our self-concept is linked to the social situations in which we find ourselves. My sense of self as I stand here before you is different than my sense of self when I engage in the role of graduate student or diaper changer. That is, our self-concept is a dynamic process that is linked to the various roles that we occupy in various social settings. To gain some insight on the effect of incarceration, as contrasted to the effect of a college education, I designed a variation of the Twenty Statements Test that situationally locates self-concept.

Two versions of the test were designed. The instructions on Form #1 were as follows:

> All persons occupy a variety of roles. One of the roles you now occupy is that of prisoner at The State Prison of Southern Michigan. Think about yourself in this role. Think about how others view you when you are in this role. Keeping this role in mind, list your answers to the question "Who am I?" in the spaces below.

The only difference in this form and Form #2 was that the phrase "prisoner at Southern Michigan Prison" was replaced with "student at Spring Arbor College." In this way, the subjects were asked to place themselves in one of these two roles, and then describe their sense of self. The students were unaware that two forms existed. The forms were interspersed, and randomly distributed in two separate classes at the prison. Here is a selected summary of the results:

FIGURE 1

SITUATIONALLY LOCATED SELF-CONCEPT

PRISONER AT SPSM	STUDENT AT SAC
WASTED	GOAL-ORIENTED
ANGRY	AN ACHIEVER
BORED	INTELLIGENT
DEHUMANIZED	MOTIVATED
A NUMBER	COMMUNICATIVE
USED	A POTENTIAL PSYCHOLOGIST
CONFUSED	FUTURE LAW STUDENT
TRAPPED	SMART
SUB-HUMAN	A LEARNER
A REJECT	UNDERSTANDING
LOST	SOMEONE WITH GOOD SELF-ESTEEM
OPPRESSED	CONFIDENT
SKEPTICAL	PROUD
BITTER	SUCCESSFUL
SCARED	OPTIMISTIC
UNTRUSTED	PATIENT
MISUNDERSTOOD	APPRECIATIVE
HATED	A LEADER
LONELY	
TIRED	

As you view these results, keep in mind that the subjects were randomly selected from the same population. The only difference between the two conditions was the role in which the student was asked to envision himself.

Because all of our students occupy both of these roles, our students at any given point in time are likely to be experiencing components of the self derived from both roles.

It should be clear from this that the role of prisoner is largely dehumanizing and positive effects resulting from the role of student should be equally clear.

My first teaching experience at the prison was a Senior-level capstone course four years ago. As part of the course material, we viewed the movie, "The Elephant Man." This movie depicts an individual who suffers from severe physical deformities and handicaps. Due to his unusual appearance, he is labeled the "Elephant Man," and is exhibited as a sideshow freak. His keeper treats him as an animal, and is therefore unaware of his great intellectual capacity and deep sensitivity. He is not even aware that John Merrick, the elephant man, can speak. As the movie unfolds, a compassionate doctor works with John, and we are able to watch as the elephant man is humanized. One of the most moving portions of the movie occurs when John is being chased and harassed by a crowd. Trapped, and surrounded by a crowd, John faces his pursuers and screams, "I am not an elephant, I am not an animal, I am a human being."

As my class and I watched the movie together I saw supposedly hardened criminals in the maximum security section of the world's largest walled prison fighting back tears, and in some cases, openly weeping. They wept not only for John Merrick, but also for themselves. I suspect that each of them, on a daily basis, silently screams with John, "I am not an animal, I am a human being."

Every time an inmate is taken somewhere in belly chains, hands cuffed to his waist, or when he is locked in his cage for the evening, or called for a visit by number, he must struggle with his polarized sense of self.

The results of the Twenty Statements Test suggest that we at Spring Arbor College are assisting our students in the process of human development. The long term effect on the development of the self is yet to be determined. Sociologist Ralph Turner suggests that a situationally-located identity becomes a relatively permanent part of the self when a role-person merger occurs. That is, the person becomes so involved in a particular role that the expectations and characteristics associated with that role become a relatively permanent part of the self, and thus transcend the social role.

Look again at the two lists of self-concept components. Imagine that these lists represent not different aspects of an individual's self-concept, but the total self-concept of two separate individuals. While I have no hard data that would allow for prediction of external outcomes such as recidivism, I would feel fairly confident in predicting that an individual whose self-concept matched the column on the right would have a significantly lower likelihood of recidivism.

What are the implications of this research for the practitioner? Erving Goffman uses the terms role distance and role embracement to describe the process by which we manage self-presentation. At any given point in time, an individual is embracing certain roles and holding others at a distance. This phenomenon is known as selective self-investment. By investing in those roles that enhance our sense of self, we manage to maintain a healthy, or at least tolerable, self-concept.

Educational programs in correctional facilities are valuable in that they provide the inmate a role that can be a positive alternative to the role of

prisoner. I am suggesting that educational programs should be designed so that the inmate-student can distance himself from the role of prisoner (as represented by the terms in column 1 on page 5), and embrace those components of the self identified with the role of student (as identified in column 2 on page 5).

Our ultimate goal should be the facilitation of a role-person merger. Turner suggests that a role-person merger has occurred when:

1. The individual fails to compartmentalize roles. That is, role behavior associated with one role begin to permeate a larger variety of roles. The student who studies even when there are no classes or exams is in the process of a role-person merger.
2. The individual resists giving up the role. An example of this would be the student who turns down a good-paying job or a desirable transfer to remain in school.
3. The individual gives evidence of attitudes and beliefs appropriate to the role. Interest in higher levels of education, a commitment to education for its own sake, and a heightened sense of curiosity would all be indicators of beliefs, and attitudes appropriate to the role.

What can we as correctional educators do to increase the likelihood of a role-person merger? Turner suggests three relevant variables:

1. The more comprehensive the role, the greater the likelihood of a role-person merger.
2. The better and more consistent the role portrayal, the greater the likelihood of a role-person merger.
3. The more positive or negative the evaluation of the role, the greater the likelihood of a role-person merger.

The comprehensiveness of the role of student can be increased in a variety

of ways. Curriculum that is tied to personal experience enhances the comprehensiveness of the role of student. Students should be encouraged to draw from and apply to everyday experience. In this way, the role of student becomes relevant for all of life.

Extra-curricular opportunities for interaction can also increase the comprehensiveness of the role. For example, Spring Arbor College has a Psychology Club meeting once a month that is open to all current students and alumni. These opportunities for interaction and dialogue enhance the importance of fellow students as a significant reference group. This given the student much-needed support in his attempts to distance himself from the role of prisoner.

Increasing the consistency and the level of performance in the student's role portrayal is a well-established and fundamental goal of educators. Correctional educators need to be especially sensitive to the effects of institutionalization on student performance. The effects of deindividuation and the resultant learned helplessness can be countered by challenging the student to assume greater responsibility for his education, and by providing opportunities for the student to make significant choices. This can happen in the registration process as well as in the classroom.

Cattle-call registrations with paternalistic and/or patronizing student advisors only add to the dehumanizing effects of institutionalization. We can humanize the registration process by encouraging the student to understand and make the choices. In the classroom, we can create opportunities for choice by allowing greater flexibility in the selection of topics for papers, or by allowing the student to choose from a menu of essay questions. Allowing the student to make more choices inevitably diminishes our control, but that is precisely what deinstitutionalization is about. As we encourage the student

to make choices, we are facilitating the reindividuation process.

Finally, we must explore ways to increase the positive evaluation of the role of student. The importance of this component is made clear in a recent text on social psychology (Stephan & Stephan, 1985):

> ". . . the more positive or negative the evaluation of a role, the more likely the person will be identified with it. A successful U.S. president or a notorious mass murderer are more likely to be identified with their roles than a good grocery clerk."

The stigma attached to the role of prisoner or criminal is clearly negative. This strong negative evaluation increases the likelihood that the prisoner will experience a role-person merger with the role of prisoner. In order for our students to have a realistic alternative for a role-person merger, tne evaluation attached to the role of student needs to be almost as positive as the evaluation attached to the role of prisoner is negative.

How can we do this? At Spring Arbor College, we attempt this by creating symbols of status attached to the role of student. For example, in addition to our Dean's List, we announce a Distinguished Student of the Semester for each class. Each student who is honored in this way receives a leter from the Academic Dean, as well as a letter from the program Director. Our graduation is a traditional cap-and-gown commencement with all of the trappings that the setting will allow. Graduates who are still incarcerated are allowed to audit one course each semester at no charge. In our program newsletter, we spotlight a distinguished alumnus each issue. This year, our graduates were addressed by a successful alumnus of the class of 1981. In short, we are trying to find ways to enhance the status attached to the role of student to increase the likelihood of a role-person merger.

This admittedly is an uphill battle. There are few roles as comprehen-

sive, pervasive, and intrusive as the role of prisoner. The consistency of the role portrayal is encouraged by fellow inmates, and demanded by the authorities. The negative evaluation of the role is a given. Clearly, there are significant forces pushing the prisoner in the direction of a merger with this role. When the individual merges with the role of prisoner, institutionalization has happened, the likelihood of recidivism is greatly increased, and we have all but lost.

I am convinced, however, that this need not happen. While our follow-up research is still in process, we do have some information about our 188 students who have graduated to date. We know that at least 10% of these students have paroled, and been accepted for graduate work. Of these, about one-third have completed graduate degrees. One of our graduates, having completed two master's degrees, is currently a Ph.D. candidate and employed as a quality control analyst by the local power company. We know that at least 10% of our graduates have paroled and obtained professional employment as social workers, paralegals, managers, and so forth. We know that at least 20% of our graduates are still in prison. We know of 5% who have re-entered the revolving doors. This means that at this point we do not know about more that 50% of our graduates. But what we do know provides some basis for optimism.

We all know that the odds are against us. We are painfully aware of the uphill battle. If we understand what we are fighting against, we can make a difference. We can facilitate reindividuation, we can engage in rehumanizing the dehumanized. We can give our students the courage and will to say with John Merrick, "I am not an animal, I am a human being."

Functional Retardation: A Critical

Focus for Adult Correctional Education

By:

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Introduction

Ever since the Successful Bridewell experiment (Roberts, 1984) in England during the sixteenth century focusing on reformation of prisoners by teaching them trades and useful work habits, correctional education has been a continuing phenomenon. In USA, it saw its beginnings in the establishment of a prison school at Walnut Street Jail in Philadelphia in 1798 to educate prisoners in 3 R's and received its first legal recognition in 1847 in New York through a state law which provided for the appointment of two teachers to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic to prisoners (Roberts, 1971). Today, educational programs to prisoners are available in almost all state correctional facilities although the Bridewell success seems to have eluded them. The Bridewell inmate, upon their release, used their prison education and training to earn a living and lead productive lives in the society. Not so with today's inmates who, after their release, generally seem to have little use for their education and vocational training received in the prison, continue with their criminal life style and contribute to the high recidivism rate.

Why did Bridewell succeed while today's prisons fail in their educational efforts? A closer examination of their inmate population characteristics and educational philosophies provide an answer. The Bridewell population consisted of starving people without any saleable skills who resorted to stealing during an extreme economic recession. These people were motivated to learn trades to make a living. The prison provided just that. There was a good match between inmate needs and educational content. Such match is missing in today's correctional education. We still focus on providing academic and vocational education which the majority of inmates do not seem to want or

need. Inmates feel "School is a farce..." (Campbell, 1978, p. 123). According to a recent research study lack of interest in school and classwork was the primary reason for dropping out of school by more inmates (44%) than any other reason (Porter and Porter, 1984). Correctional teachers and counselors have complained to the present author that few inmates show any interest in educational programs and of those who do enroll many drop out or show poor achievement.

Logically, "If we believe in the beneficial effects of education on man in general we must believe in it for this particular group (prisoners)..." (MacCormick, 1931, p 3). However, for it to be beneficial it must be in synchroneity with adult inmates' special personality characteristics and needs.

The Adult Prisoner

Adult inmates constitute a special group because first, they are adults not children and second, they are inmates in the prison, not free people in the society. As adults their needs, motivations and learning processes differ from those of children which necessitated the coining of the word andragogy (teaching of adults) to differentiate it from pedagogy (teaching of children) (Knowles, 1979). This requires specialized curriculum and teaching methods (Cross, 1981; Anderson, 1981; Davies, 1981; Rauch, 1981) to be discussed later in this paper. As inmates their needs and motivations differ, if not learning processes, from those of adults in the free society requiring specialized curriculum (MacCormick, 1931; Ayers, 1977; Price and Price, 1980; Shelton, 1980; Krisak and Ross, 1981; Ryan, 1982; Ramey, 1984; Homant, 1984). Yet, educational programs in the prisons, both in content and technique, in general appear to correspond to those developed for children and adults in the free society. It follows, therefore, that a successful correctional education

program will have to start with an understanding of adult inmates' special personality characteristics and needs.

For this purpose Srivastava (1985) conducted a research study in Arizona State Prison Complex, Florence. Data on a variety of personality factors, psychopathologies, intelligence, educational achievement and vocational skills were obtained from a random sample of 2,000 inmates. The data reveal the adult inmates in general to be of normal intelligence ($\bar{X}$ IQ = 105.9) with average grade level educational achievement of 8.5 in reading and 5.9 in botn writing and arithmetic, and with average number of years of schooling received to be 10.8, suggesting that while the inmates are intellectually normal capable of normal academic achievement they are poor achievers. Even though intellectually they are capable of higher level vocations most of them (65.3%) engage in unskilled labor probably because it does not require formal schooling and training which they do not seem to like. A majority of inmates (69.4%) were found to have one or more psychopathologies, prominent among which were thought disorder and paranoid ideation. In general they were found to have a large number of acute psychological problems but only a few were mentally ill (16.9%). These data indicate that while the psychopathologies found among adult inmates are not so severe as to require hospitalization they are of sufficient impact to render individuals incapable of dealing effectively with their environment and handling demands of day to day living in a responsible manner. Analysis of the data on personality characteristics revealed the adult inmates to exhibit reality confusion, social inadequacy, low motivation, low self esteem, substance abuse, agression/anger/hostility, depression, denial, self harm, paranoia, impulsiveness, and inadequate psychosexual development. Reality confusion clearly stood out to be the most prominent, indicating that the inmates live in a dream world of their own dominated

by perceptual distortion. The result is that their behaviors and thought patterns are inconsistent with the social values and norms often leading to conflicts which starts a chain reaction of unending negative consequences for both the individual and the society.

When all these data are considered together the emerging picture is that of a group of people who are deficient not intellectually but behaviorally and are, in essence, functionally retarded. The behavioral deficiencies seem to be a function of a complex interaction of a variety of psychiatric disorders and negative personality characteristics. Because of the exceptional nature of incarcerated adults special education techniques specially modified for them are required.

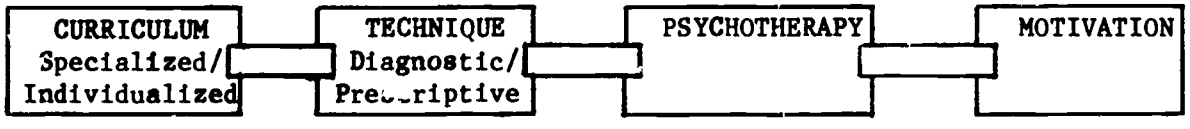
A Correctional Education Paradigm

The paradigm presented below postulates the goals of correctional education to be "functional adequacy" to counter functional retardation. This goal can be achieved through an integrated and coordinated four pronged approach. Schematically, it may be represented as follows:

GOAL

Functional

Adequacy



EDUCATIONAL PARADIGM FOR FUNCTIONAL RETARDATION

Each of the components of the paradigm are discussed below.

Function Adequacy Goal. Vague and controversial goals such as "rehabilitation" need to be discarded. The incarcerated adults, in order to be able to deal with the demands of life need to improve themselves in specific areas of functional deficiencies which are identified to be academic, vocational, social and personal (low self concept, inadequate psychosexual development, substance abuse, anger/hostility, aggression and impulsiveness). Some authors prefer to use the term "Life Coping Skills" and have their own favorite lists which cover most of the factors listed above except "personal" areas which are largely ignored (MacCormick, 1931; University of Texas, 1971; Shelton, 1980; Ramey, 1984). The existing educational programs provide academic education for GED and some vocational skills such as carpentry, masonry, small engine repair, printing, etc. For both of these programs at least an eighth grade education is required which qualifies only a very small proportion of inmates. Of those who do qualify many engage in those programs as a means of lowering their custody level or obtaining parole or escaping "gun gang" and not for improving themselves educationally and vocationally. The primary reason for this is that the programs are provided in the form of traditional formal schooling which the inmates detest and in areas in which the inmates have no interest. All other identified areas of deficiency are not even addressed. The critical point to remember is that the education must be provided in areas which the inmates need and want and not just in the areas which the prison administration thinks inmates need. This will assure functional adequacy.

Once the inmates learn to deal with their lives effectively and successfully (i.e. adaptively) by becoming functionally adequate, they will not need to resort to crime, the theory being that crime is a maladaptive way of dealing with life and maladaptive ways are adopted in the absence of adaptive

techniques. Incarcerated adults possess necessary intellectual and physiological resources to learn adaptive behavior.

Curriculum: Specialized and Individualized. The identification of broad areas of functional adequacy does not mean that they constitute a curriculum to be used with all the inmates. Because specific needs and wants vary with individual inmates specialized individualized curriculum is essential. It takes the form of an Individual Educational Plan (IEP) which is a written document of individual inmate's strengths and weaknesses (competencies), educational goals and objectives as dictated by his competencies, teaching methods and tools suitable for him and objective evaluation techniques. Its need was recognized by Wallack et al as far back as in 1939, however, its use in correctional education is still very limited as evidenced by only a few examples of its application reported in the literature (Shelton, 1980; McAfee, 1980; Anderson, 1981; Mayer and Hoffman, 1982; Ryan, 1982).

Technique: Diagnostic-Prescriptive. This approach has been in use in special education for a number of years and has been described in detail in several publications (e.g. Farrald and Schamber, 1973: Stellern, et al., 1982). It is specially appropriate for use with incarcerated adults since they are also deficient individuals. According to the process described by Blake (1981) and Krisak and Ross (1981) it is composed of the following steps:

1. Global diagnosis through objective testing to identify broad areas of weaknesses of the individual.
2. Specific diagnosis through objective testing to pinpoint the individual's unique strengths and weaknesses within the identified global areas.
3. Prescription for an educational program focusing on the use of identified strengths to correct identified areas of weaknesses through specification of educational goals and objectives, teaching methods, and tools.
4. Personalized system of teaching/therapy implementing the prescription.
5. Evaluation through objective testing to determine progress made, if any, by the individual toward his educational goals and objectives.

6. Revision of prescription based on evaluation results.

This approach has been successfully used at Adult Learning Center at Maximum Security Prison, Huntsville, Pennsylvania (Lucas, 1979).

Psychotherapy. Psychological treatment must be made an integral part of Correctional education. With a majority of inmates having one or more psychopathologies (Srivastava, 1985) psychotherapy is a must without which no educational program can be made functional. The identified psychiatric symptoms and problem personality characteristics, if not psychologically treated, are likely to prevent incarcerated adults from participating in their educational programs and render them useless no matter how well devised and suited to the individual. An individual who lacks reality orientation and is paranoid is likely to see the teacher as a foe rather than as a friend, or one who has low self esteem is not likely to see himself succeeding in anything, or one who is impulsive is not likely to put years of effort in education and wait for future gains, or one who is socially inadequate and psychosexually immature is not likely to be able to function in social situations which are inherent in many educational programs, or one who is always angry and hostile and aggressive and depressed is not likely to be emotionally stable enough to perceive and respond to educational stimuli let alone respond to them appropriately, or one who is an alcoholic and drug addict is more likely to use all his resources in obtaining substances for abuse rather than in education. Before we can educate incarcerated adults we must first show human concern toward them and provide them treatment to "change their negative propensities" (Price and Price, 1980).

Motivation. The inmates should be motivated not forced to learn. Cross (1981) reviewed five theories of adult motivation; Force Field theory of

Miller (1967), Expectancy-Valence paradigm of Ruberson (1977), Congruence model of Boshier (1973), Anticipated Benefits theory of Tough (1979) and her own Chain of Response model (1981). Together these theories suggest that adult inmates would be motivated to learn if negative environmental forces in the prison are controlled, expectation of personal success and positive consequences of learning are installed in the inmate, a congruence instead of adversary role relations between the inmate and the prison are established, and the inmate is placed in a situation where he can consciously anticipate rewards. Considering the way the prisons are run it may not be possible to remove negative valences from the inmate's environment and create congruence between his self and the institution, but it should be possible to develop and implement an educational program which increases expectation of success and anticipation of personal benefits and rewards leading to motivation to participate in learning.

Some Principles of Adult Learning

The paradigm detailed above would be immensely facilitated if it incorporates the following selected principles of adult learning. These are appropriate for teaching incarcerated adults since they correspond to their identified characteristics.

1. Individualization of educational goals and techniques and "provision for differences in style, time, place and pace of learning "must be made because individual differences increase with age (Lindeman, 1926) and because adults are a heterogenous group (Rauch, 1981).
2. Involvement of totality of being (Davies, 1981) by adults requires that education must not be fragmented into isolated subjects. Instead, it should be integrated with all life experiences.

3. Learning should emphasize current experiences of the learner (Davies, 1981) because adults are "now" oriented (Rauch, 1981). However, it should utilize the learner's experiences (Lindeman, 1926) accumulated over years (Knowles, 1979).

4. Adult motivation for learning is directly tied to the adult learners' individual needs and wants (Lindeman, 1926), since adults learn only those things which they perceive as necessary for "maintenance of or enhancement of the structure of self" (Rogers, 1951). Prisons, in general, are lacking in motivational factors of learning. The education programs will have to create conditions for individual motivation inspite of the prison climate working against it.

5. The things which are useful in their day to day living or are life centered (Lindeman, 1926) have the highest priority in adult learning. Adults need to learn skills which they can use both in and out of the prison for their well being. Yet, our correctional education, in large part, is useful only for life outside the prison (Braithwaite, 1980; Khan, 1982). Of all the life centered things the ones that have positive impact on inmates' economic circumstances (Braithwaite, 1980) are most important. Unfortunately, our prisons are using economically beneficial employment as part of inmate education less and less as evidenced by the fact that while 90% inmate population was employed in 1855 only 10% is employed now over 100 years later (Funke et al,. 1982).

6. Adults are self directed (Lindeman, 1926), since maturation is a progression from total dependency to self directedness (Knowles, 1975, 1979). The inmates can be self directed learners if they are taught "how to learn" which would set a "self-sustaining process" (Foley-Jones and Broadhurst, 1977) in motion. Nothing like this anywhere seems to be available in cor-

rections.

7. Education should be imparted through guidance (Wallack et al., 1939) not through authority (Lindeman, 1926) because as Rogers (1951) pointed out, the education of another person can only be facilitated. The teacher, therefore, acts as a "facilitator", "consultant" and "change agent" (Knowles, 1979), who does not tell adults what to learn and how b.. only provides opportunities, facts and resources and lets the adults learn themselves.

8. Adults learn best when they are active participants in the educational process in contrast to being passive recipients of information (Rauch, 1981). This means that adults need to be a party in the development and implementation of their educational plan at all phases from setting goals and objectives to evaluation of educational outcomes.

9. Learning by adults is process oriented not content oriented (Knowles, 1979). In traditional content oriented education the teacher decides beforehand what knowledge or skills need to be given to the student and then proceeds to give them. In process oriented education, the teacher establishes a climate for learning, creates mechanism for mutual planning, diagnoses learning needs, formulates program objectives consistent with needs, designs patterns of learning experiences, conducts them with suitable techniques and materials, and evaluates learning outcomes and rediagnoses learning needs (Knowles, 1979). Ready-made solutions to problems used blindly is not an adult characteristic. Adults use logic and available facts to arrive at new solutions to the problems which are accepted or discarded after testing. Their education must, therefore, encourage this problem solving approach. Unfortunately, prisons seems to extend their insistence on following rules to education as well and actually dis-

courage and even punish original thinking.

10. Performance contracting has been found to be a very effective tool (Pennington, 1979) in education. In contrast to performing under someone else's orders, it requires the learner to contract with the teacher or with himself to meet certain specific performance goals in order to receive certain rewards. It is specially relevant for adult learners since it makes them responsible for their own behaviors and gives them a feeling of personal achievement and having personal control over their lives. Learning contract usually has eight steps (Knowles, 1979) which are: A. Diagnose learning needs. B. Specify learning objectives. C. Specify learning resources and strategies. D. Specify evidence of accomplishment. E. Specify how the evidence will be validated. F. Review contract with consultants. G. Carry out the contract. H. Evaluate the learning. (Knowles, 1979, pp 199-203).

11. Performance can be increased and strengthened through proper reinforcement. This is true for all living beings including adults. Learning is facilitated by positive results and knowledge of results (Ayers, 1977) and must be made part of any adult education. In our prisons, curiously enough, education is often negatively reinforced both by the inmates and the staff (Reagen and Stoughton, 1976) and the knowledge of results is suppressed in the name of security.

Summary and Conclusions

Modern correctional education is a failure because it is not in synchroneity with adult inmates personality characteristics and needs. Available data suggest incarcerated adults to be intellectually and physically normal but behaviorally deficient. In essence, they are functionally retarded and

require special education treatment. A correctional education paradigm has been proposed which postulates functional adequacy as a goals to be achieved through an integration of four critical elements: 1. Curriculum: Specialized/Individualized, 2. Technique: Diagnostic-Prescriptive, 3. Psychotherapy, and 4. Motivation.

To facilitate the education of this exceptional population the use of twelve selected principles of adult learning has been recommended.

In conclusion, it needs to be stressed that, if properly applied, education has the potential for helping inmates lead adaptive life and overcome their functional retardation. However, for meaningful impact education must be available to all adult inmates which means that the present educational resources of personnel, material and facilities must be expanded many times.

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THE LIBERAL ARTS IN THE CORRECTIONAL SETTING: "EDUCATION BEFITTING FREE MEN"--FOR THOSE WHO PRESENTLY ARE NOT FREE

by

DR. ELIZABETH J. BARKER

The Liberal Arts in the Correctional Setting:
"Education Befitting Free Men"--for Those Who Presently Are Not Free

"The value of a liberal arts education", writes Timothy Barry, inmate of the Massachusetts Correctional Institution at Norfolk and holder of a Boston University Bachelor of Liberal Studies degree earned there, "lies in the new perspectives it offers the student....It opens the vistas of historical analysis, philosophical belief systems, economics, politics, literature, art and theology. The complexity of the forces that shape our cultures and attitudes become evident....In a world of increasing population, decreasing resources, increasing alienation, decreasing patience and increasing xenophobia, it might not be a bad thing to have people exploring the mystery of being and trying to understand how we got to our present condition."

"A liberal arts education has shown me the universe," writes his fellow-prisoner and fellow-alumnus Robert Heard. "It has revealed man the organism as a part of an ever changing, developing process. It has placed me in this process, and it has shown me that I can change and that I have changed for the better."

"By giving a person a sense of place in life, the college program at Norfolk has made it possible for an inmate literally to begin life anew, without the worry of ever returning to the behavior that caused his incarceration. Knowing who you are and where you are going is something that many people never seem to attain," is the comment of Thomas Darragh, Jr., 1986 graduate. Undergraduate Gordon Brown expresses a similar idea thus: "A liberal arts education is enabling me to expand the frontiers of my consciousness. Through knowledge of the world I live in I can explore the essence of my very existence. In doing so, I hope that I can become a better human being."

These sample statements by students of Boston University's program in the Massachusetts prison system give a striking support to our Conference theme, "Correctional Education: the Opportunity for Change." Taken together, they suggest a link between individual and institutional change which this paper will argue in presenting the case for emphasis on the liberal arts in prison education. From a broadened and transformed perception of the world, they tell us, comes a transformed perception of the self's relation to the world. The very process of achieving this, and the cognitive and moral development that it implies, constitute an "education befitting free men." What "works" to transform the outlook and behavior of prisoners may well provide a model for the sort of education that will help keep others out of prison.

The association of the words "liberal" and "arts" originated, according to the Oxford English Dictionary, in the medieval designation of those studies deemed worthy of "free men," which at that time referred to studies worthy of aristocrats, as distinguished from the purely practical, "mechanical" training available to the common man. Today, its original meaning points to the principal purpose of education for the common man himself, insofar as he would be free. In this respect, no real wall of difference exists between the student inside the literal walls and the student outside. For one as for the other, education should address those perceptions of reality and resulting cognitive structures on which values and beliefs are based. It should offer an exercise in freedom as foundation for training in the skills needed for survival in contemporary society. The recent upsurge in technical education has given rise to concern about the proliferation of graduates trained in how to use our technology but uneducated in ways of considering the values and goals that technology should serve--which means, in the exercise of those personal, social, and political choices of direction which form the basis of our indivi-

dual and collective liberties.

Boston University's experience with a liberal arts program in the prisons, like that of the University of Victoria and of Simon Fraser University in British Columbia, speaks convincingly to these wider concerns. This is not as exceptional as it might seem. It simply testifies once more to Dostoevsky's often quoted dictum that a society finds its true mirror-image in its prisons. The implications for change, individual and institutional, that have arisen in the course of these programs extend beyond the academic realm to impinge upon the "philosophy" that governs the correctional process as a whole, if it can be said to have a coherent philosophy in absence of an accepted paradigm of justice. The anomaly expressed in penal policies that fumble between the contrary assumptions of punishment and of treatment is a magnified reflection of what Alfred North Whitehead called "a radical inconsistency at the basis of modern thought [which] accounts for much that is half-hearted and wavering in our civilization."[1] He referred to our era's simultaneous embracing of contradictory interpretations of human motive and behavior: that which attributes it to antecedent causes, genetic or environmental, and that which views the human organism as morally autonomous and essentially self-determining. What clearer example of a "half-hearted" consequence than the retreat to "incapacitation" theory which, in practice, all-too-often amounts to the "warehousing" of offenders under conditions which incapacitate them indeed--primarily for a lawful and productive life in society!

We will now turn to an examination of the ways in which the liberal arts experience in prison education illuminates this philosophical dilemma and suggests directions for change. Evidence will be drawn primarily from records and personal knowledge of Boston University's fourteen-year-old program and from Stephen Duguid's report and analysis of the University of Victoria's pro-

gram, which appeared in the 1981 Canadian government publication, On Prison Education.[2]

Like many other post-secondary ventures, Boston University's was initiated at a time when the so-called "rehabilitation ideal" still dominated correctional policy, in Massachusetts, at least. The program has managed to survive the general collapse of this ideal, perhaps because it is offered as a public service, at university expense, or perhaps because the recidivism rate of its released graduates and matriculated students (about 80) stands thus far at zero. (Canadian surveys show a comparatively low reincarceration record for the University of Victoria's prison students.) The retreat from rehabilitation has, as we know, been justified on the ground that its effects could not be measured in markedly reduced rates of recidivism. Institutional change, in this case, came in response to the apparent failure of certain institutional policies and practices, including education, to produce individual change, as defined by the offender's behavior after release. Although the number of prisoners involved in the Boston and Victoria University programs is obviously too small to have a statistical impact upon the situation as a whole, it is sufficient to indicate the value of a study of these programs--specifically with an eye to establishing how liberal arts education differs from rehabilitative treatment and from vocational training to produce such evidence of individual change on the part of prison students.

The word "treatment" has outlived the correctional philosophy of which it was the primary expression. In Massachusetts it persists in connection with most operations of the prisons not exclusively devoted to security, discipline, classification, industries, or physical management and maintenance. Education, therefore, is placed under the authority of the Director of Treatment, which suggests that it belongs in the category of therapy. The anomaly

involved in this terminology reflects what Whitehead called the "radical inconsistency at the basis of modern thought." "Treatment," after all, is a medical term and as such designates a process of diagnosis, prescription, and curative procedure in which the patient, whether his disorder be physical or psychological, is the object of study--of observation, analysis, measurement, and evaluation. The student in the classroom, on the other hand, is not the object of study but is himself the observer, analyzer, measurer, evaluator of an "object" that may be a scientific experiment, a novel, an historical era, a mathematical theorem, a philosophical system. His teacher, focused upon the same object, is, therefore, not in the position of therapist but of resource and collaborator.

The theoretical roots of the medical model can be traced at least as far back as the late nineteenth century rise of the European positivist-determinist school of criminology, with its basic assumption that human behavior, including criminal, is the product of antecedent causes, genetic or environmental. This turned the focus of attention from the crime to the criminal, to diagnosis of the causes of his misbehavior and therapeutic prescriptions for its cure and control. As this "scientifically" based, individually oriented, correctional philosophy took hold in the United States, it soon replaced the punitive-reformative model represented in the traditional American penitentiary and gave rise, in the course of the twentieth century, to what F. A. Allen, writing in 1959, named the "rehabilitative ideal."[3]

This appealed to thoughtful people as a "modernizing" development in the direction of humanitarianism. Punishment became a virtually forbidden word among criminologists, as the aim of repentance, which the name penitentiary implies, gave way to the aim of cure. Reflected in this, of course, was the retreat of the moral/religious interpretation of human choice and action be-

fore the advance of the behavioral sciences--which is to say, the shift from a view predicated on man's rationality and moral autonomy to one that attributed his behavior to antecedent causes. Karl Menninger, in The Crime of Punishment, declared that "the very word justice irritates scientists,"[4] who find it as absurd to invoke justice in a case of shoplifting or assault as in the matter of a doctor's prescriptions. "Criminals are surely ill, not evil," declared his reviewer, Roger Jellinek.[5]

It is not surprising that Whitehead's "radical inconsistency" comes to a head of sorts in the theoretical incompatibility of such views with the law's assumption of criminal responsibility. The result is a system of criminal justice, so-called, that operates without a coherent paradigm of justice. The retreat from rehabilitation and the return, under such labels as "justice model" and "incapacitation," to policies associated with retribution and punishment has taken place on pragmatic, not philosophical grounds, therefore largely without rejection of the deterministic premises of rehabilitative theory. Punishment that is not predicated on the offender's rationality and moral freedom is not only meaningless but combines in practice the worst features of both schools of penology.

The progressive, humanitarian purposes of the rehabilitation ideal, calculated to serve both the public's defense and the individual's welfare, were largely negated by its own theory which denied its object's distinguishing human attribute: his freedom to determine his own destiny by reasoned decisions made within the limits of his given situation. Much of the criticism leveled at the manipulative and coercive aspects of therapeutic practice has implied, if not explicitly stated, the existence of this central anomaly that has worked to undermine rehabilitation's good intentions. The tendency to substitute for law, judge, and jury the "expertise" and cultural standards of

psychiatrist and social worker provided occasion for counter-manipulation on the part of the prisoner, who would go in for "programming" in order to "look good" to the professional evaluators. Small wonder that treatment failed, by and large, to produce a record of genuine individual change!

In its substantial (if not always admitted) abandonment of the therapeutic model for the punitive, the "system" has not abandoned that which laid rehabilitation open to criticism--the tendency to see the prisoner as an object. Focus has shifted back from the criminal to the crime, as is indicated by the latest style of parole hearing, which pretends to re-try the original case instead of evaluating the applicant's use of his time in prison and his present plans and attitudes. The underlying positivistic assumptions that turn the prison inmate into an object of study and treatment remain operative in the manipulation of his compliance with institutional rules and regulations which have no other purpose than security. Punishment and rehabilitation alike have abandoned their rational foundations in the retreat to "incapacitation," which makes no sense in terms of either one. The philosophical bankruptcy of the system has recently received new exposure in Wilson and Herrnstein's book, Crime and Human Nature.[6] Herein, Herrnstein's attribution of criminal behavior to genetic predisposition is combined with Wilson's predilection for dividing mankind into the wicked and the good and his prescription for "incapacitating" the former by means of punishment, retribution, and deterrence. The authors display no more than a slight uneasiness over the theoretical paradox involved in holding the offender morally responsible for crimes he was constitutionally pre-determined to commit. It is not to be wondered at that the spectre of meaninglessness haunts the operations of our overburdened correctional institutions today.

Such is the context within which education, post-secondary and basic,

liberal and vocational, must work to provide opportunity for the kinds of individual change that can suggest positive new directions for the thinking of the system as a whole. In making the case for liberal arts education for prisoners as an exercise in freedom, we make it, in fact, for our entire society, including the criminal justice and correctional professionals whose work it is to imprison. The philosophical confusion that besets corrections did not originate there; it simply reflects and focuses, as we have said, that "radical inconsistency at the basis of modern thought." What works in prison, therefore, may suggest a direction for everybody's education that would work to reduce the number who go there. Speaking at the A.C.A.'s 1986 conference in San Diego, James D. Squire, editor of the Chicago Tribune, advised that the nation's problems of crime and correction be addressed by "raising the level of education, particularly the direction of education" in the country as a whole. Citing Socrates, he defined his proposed direction in terms of broadly-based moral education.[7] What we have learned through a few programs involving a handful of convicts may well indicate the first steps that we should take along this open, public road.

In discussing what it is that we have learned, we must first state the fact that prison education in the liberal arts constitutes neither therapy nor punishment, but a means of comprehending both in terms of their historical and philosophical origins. It proceeds from the assumption that criminal offenders, whatever their special problems and circumstances, do not differ from mankind in general in respect to their possession of reason, imagination, appreciation of beauty, respect for honor and integrity, and the ability to make morally self-determining choices on the basis of their perceptions of reality. It is to these perceptions that the educational process should address itself. Stephen Duguid, in analyzing the University of Victoria's

program, makes a convincing case for a focus on the prisoner's perceptions of the world as these are assimilated in the structure of his thinking--in short, for a focus on cognitive and moral development.[8] We shall draw upon his analysis, as well as upon data from Boston University's program, in presenting what these programs have to suggest in terms of teaching style and method, and of curricular content, as means to accomplish such a focus.

The principles which Duguid derives from the University of Victoria's work at the Matsqui Institution in British Columbia correspond with those that emerge from Boston University's at the Massachusetts Correctional Institution at Norfolk. Unlike the Victoria program which Duguid reports, "started with a theory" and "has tried to retain a strong sense of theory," B.U.'s Norfolk classes were initiated in 1972 by volunteer professors who were attracted simply by the challenge involved in teaching prisoners. Five years later, when seven inmates had fulfilled the requirements for graduation, these somewhat random efforts were transformed into a regular off-campus program offering a Bachelor of Liberal Studies degree, a step that enjoyed the full support of the University's President, John R. Silber.

It speaks impressively to the soundness of Duguid's "case for rationalism, for a direct connection between perception, cognition, and behaviour," that a program which began with no theory at all has produced effects which support his theoretical assumptions. Similarly, the teaching style that he recommends be centered upon "problem-solving strategies, fundamental concepts and the basic structures of the academic disciplines"[9] has become standard in Boston University's classes simply because it "works" to involve the students in new and more complex styles of thought. Duguid's reliance on standard liberal arts courses, so taught, to "couple cognitive growth with the development of moral reasoning" also finds its echo in the B.U. program, where

the existence of an Interdisciplinary Studies major has made possible the granting of Bachelor degrees while exploring a wide range of academic disciplines.

The effects of Boston University's fourteen-year presence in M.C.I. Norfolk and in a few minimum-security facilities cannot be weighed exclusively by the fact that not one of its released alumni or degree-candidate students has returned to prison. Many are leading lives that not only conform to the law but that are dedicated to social service or to continuing education. Some, while still in pre-release centers, have taken advantage of the University's follow-up policy to complete their Bachelor degrees on campus or to enter graduate school. Their participation in the program seems not only to have helped them develop new perceptions, thought structures, and values but to have introduced them to an interesting "world," the world of the University, quite unlike the one from which most of them came. It seems to have provided that exercise in freedom so essential to a successful transition from prison to the "street."

In what specific ways does education in prison constitute an "exercise in freedom" and how does a liberal arts education differ from vocational training in this respect? How does it differ from treatment? The answers to these questions point, as we have said, beyond the classroom to the correctional system as a whole.

First, there are certain features which apply with equal force to the prisoner's participation in a vocational training program: his initial act of commitment; his practice in the self-discipline required to follow instructions, meet deadlines, accept criticism and rectify errors; his willingness to persevere despite difficulties, and sometimes, boredom. The very process of education, whether the subjectmatter be Plato or automobile repair, demands a

measure of self-determination, but there is a qualitative difference in this respect between a liberal arts education and job-training.

There is no intention here to belittle the importance of equipping convicts with marketable skills. A danger, however, arises when this is made the only goal of correctional education--which is often the case, perhaps because it is more easily "sold" to the public than are academic programs, which many see as "frills." On the other hand, one hears the complaint that prison job-training merely turns out skilled criminals, technologically proficient but morally unchanged, hence potentially more dangerous than before. If change on the part of the individual offender is what the correctional system seeks--and if it does not, it abdicates its role of public defense--then it should concentrate on discovering what sort of education befits the free man: what sort prepares his mind and spirit for that day when the gate will open, as it will for most, upon the world of choice, chance, and challenge from which he has been immured.

It is the thesis of this paper that a liberal arts education, properly attuned to this "student body," fulfills such a role because it prefigures that day with challenges and options which prison life generally does not provide. To attune curriculum and teaching methods to the prisoner's situation does not imply a "watering down" of content or standards of performance. On the contrary, it means what Stephen Duguid, drawing upon Piaget's cognitive-development theories and upon the moral-reasoning analysis of Kohlberg, calls "education with a particular goal, a particular content, a particular style."[10] In the case of Boston University, goal, content, and style have "evolved," without prior theory, to create a program which is both particular to the prison in its cognitive-moral emphasis and standard to the University in its academic requirements and criteria. Its students take pride in the

fact that a degree earned at M.C.I. Norfolk equals, in the quantity and quality of work it represents, the same degree earned on campus. Its teachers, among whom are some of the University's most distinguished, frequently find their prison students not merely equal but superior to those they meet in the ordinary classroom. The evidence that they give for this suggests the reasons why liberal arts studies in the prison setting act as a stimulant to growth and change.

Before proceeding to these, we should describe the mode of operation that makes such a degree-granting program possible in the Massachusetts state prisons, for it is no doubt applicable elsewhere. The key is collaboration--between the post-secondary institutions and the Department of Correction, on the one hand, and between the institutions themselves, on the other. Boston University and Curry College, both private, conduct programs without taxpayer support in two correctional facilities each, but their ability to grant Bachelor's degrees depends upon close cooperation with the public institutions which are directed by the Department of Correction. The University of Massachusetts and a number of state and community colleges offer courses in most of the correctional facilities, from maximum security to pre-release. These courses constitute a basic liberal arts core curriculum, with the addition of some in business subjects such as accounting and computer literacy. A few community colleges offer two-year Associate degrees and a plan is now afoot to establish a uniform Associate program throughout the system. In order to promote such expansion, to coordinate curricula, to facilitate the exchange of credits, and to reduce the disruptive effects of transfers (which overcrowding has multiplied), the directors of both public and private prison programs formed the Massachusetts Council on Prison Education, which meets regularly to deal with common problems and plans.

The relationship between Boston University and the University of Massachusetts in M.C.I. Norfolk constitutes a striking example of what can be achieved through collaboration. An inmate who has earned his high school equivalency diploma can, if his test scores indicate a need, receive from the state university a year of "college prep" focused on reading comprehension, basic mathematical concepts and, above all, instruction and practice in writing. He can then enroll in the University of Massachusetts to take introductory liberal arts courses and fulfill his core requirements before matriculating in the B.U. Bachelor's program. Without such a cooperative arrangement, Boston University would not have been able to confer its fiftieth degree at this year's Norfolk Commencement.

Degrees, although they constitute a major incentive, are not, however, the only or ever the most significant outcome of this inter-university collaboration. By providing the inmate with basic academic skills and introducing him to the fundamental concepts of the major academic disciplines, the University of Massachusetts sends to Boston University's program students not only equipped with the tools needed to deal with subjects of considerable subtlety and complexity but spurred by a lively interest in doing so. "My education during the past two (2) years," writes undergraduate Jose Tapia of his combined programs, "has been like a key to a door that has been rusted shut for years, but now has become open."

For many, this door seems to have opened on the first meaningful educational experience of their lives. Rote learning has been replaced by questioning and debate. Fixed ideas and rigid beliefs have been challenged by new perspectives of life's infinite potential for variety and change. That which seemed "given," as immutable as a "law of nature," in contemporary society, has taken its place in the on-going historical process which forms

the context of everyone's life, student and teacher, prisoner and guard. "They" have become "we." Polarized relationships now reveal their mutual dependence and interaction as the simplistic stereotypes of foe and friend, black and white, goodies and baddies, give way to recognition and acceptance of the complexities, nuances, and ambiguites of our common existence. An education which thus challenges the authoritarian cognitive style--Piaget's "concrete operational stage," which is common among criminals but by no means limited to them--is not a "comfortable" experience. (D. H. Lawrence once remarked that "to read a really new novel will always hurt, to some extent.")[11] Old certainties collapse before new hypotheses that call the student to open-ended explorations, the end of which is not an answer but another question, not the relaxing possession of a finished formula but the call to further intellectual adventure.

Herein lies the difference between mastery of a technical skill and study of the arts, sciences, beliefs, social systems, and events that have made, and are in the process of making, the world in which we live, convict and law-abiding citizen alike. Herein also lies the fundamental distinction between a liberal arts education and treatment. In addressing the prisoner's perceptions of the world and the self's relation to the world, such an education can, as Stephen Duguid has shown, exert an effect on the development of those cognitive operations that govern beliefs and values, hence behavior. This assumes a degree of rational self-determination on the prisoner's part--an assumption that rejects the medical model's attribution of behavior to antecedent causes, to what Duguid calls "socio-economic or genetic inevitabilities." The challenges of the prison student's habitual structures of thought, outlined above, call not only upon his reasoning power in regard to the workings of the world, but upon his judgment and choice in respect to his

own place and role in these workings. The very process by which he responds to such challenges constitutes an exercise in freedom, since he must take his own responsibility for arguing his interpretations, views, and values and he is the object of no one's study but his own.

In virtually no other aspect of his life behind walls is a prisoner required or even permitted to assume such responsibility, which involves respect for himself and others. One repeatedly hears testimony like that of B. U. degree-candidate Wayne Allen: "The liberal arts program at Norfolk Prison has not only broadened my view of the world but helped me to understand my role in it....helped to awaken a sense of social responsibility. I have acquired self-repsect...something I lacked prior to the liberal arts program."

The curriculum through which Boston University mounts its challenges consists for the most part of traditional liberal arts courses, the teaching of which is far from traditional, based as it is on problem-solving approaches and other strategies for involving the students in open-ended, in-depth explorations of subject-matter. The prisoners' eagerness to learn, their readiness to question everything, their habit of testing newly-acquired knowledge against "real-life" experience, has attracted to the program the sort of professor whose dedication to his subject, commitment to the educational process, and open mind make him or her a role-model, as well as teacher. The respect thus engendered is mutual and the effect such as to spur the inmate to achievement.

As for the subjects taught, the Interdisciplinary Studies major facilitates the process of introducing students to what Duguid called the "fundamental concepts and basic structures" of a broad range of academic disciplines. These, as he pointed out, constitute the "basic tools of thought used in making sense out of experience, organizing plans of action and making

decisions."[12] While regular courses are offered in mathematics and the physical sciences, the program emphasizes the humanities, intellectual history, social studies, and the relationships between these. It generally avoids specialized courses on crime and deviance, as does the University of Victoria, but has devoted two interdisciplinary courses to comparative models of justice and social control from the ancient world to the present. From the Code of Hammurabi and the Old Testament; Aeschylus, Plato, and Justinian; Aquinas, Dante, and Shakespeare, Hobbes, Montesquieu, Beccaria, and Bentham--to Dostoevsky, the positivists, and Freud, right up to the rehabilitation debate--these courses trace the way in which a society's model of justice reflects its model of the world.

Like the University of Victoria, Boston University has developed an emphasis on literature and history, not only because these are concerned with "argumentation, philosophy, ethics, analysis of data," but because they, together with classical studies, comparative religion, anthropology, and history of science illuminate from differing perspectives the perennial human questions which unite us with the past and with one another.

Since all too few people today enjoy an "education befitting free men," many are not equipped to appreciate how an introduction to Greek drama and philosophy might enhance their lives, let alone help convicts to straighten out theirs. Raphael Pearsall, holder of three in-prison college degrees and a teacher of fellow-inmates, explains it thus: "When you're in prison your life is a mess....You think you're unique. Then you read the classics and see that what happened to you has happened to others....It has changed my life." Thomas Farina, now out on parole, attributes to the B.U. program his intellectual growth, then adds: "I think I'm a much better man. I've learned to use the philosophy of Plato's Republic--mind, heart, and spirit." (How many of

one's law-abiding, tuition-paying students on the university campus could say this? Small wonder that more professors than the program can support request assignments to prison classes!)

Boston University's liberal arts prison program may appear--in view of its modest size, its degree orientation, and its dependence on inter-college collaboration--too special a case to offer a pattern of general use and application. Our point in describing it is not, however, to propose that it can or should be widely replicated. Rather, we conclude with the proposition that its approaches, methods, and effects, like those of the University of Victoria's program, are worthy of attention as indicators of direction for positive change--not only in prison education but in prisons themselves, everywhere.

We have devoted part of this discussion to an analysis of the sources of those philosophical anomalies that threaten to render ineffective, if not counter-productive, much of today's penal policy and practice. Correctional education can hardly be expected to resolve dilemmas rooted in the crisis of the Western world-paradigm, but because its basic premises arise neither from the therapeutic model nor the punitive, it is in a position to raise the right questions.

Institutional change in correctional systems has, as recent history has demonstrated, close links with individual change. If education, in this case liberal arts education, can be shown to influence the thought-processes and resulting behavior-patterns of criminal offenders so as to change them for the better, then its principles and practices should become models for institutional change. It is not simply a matter of expanding and emphasizing educational programs in prisons, although this would certainly need to happen. Not all inmates are in a condition to be benefited by a post-secondary liberal

arts program, but Duguid's orientation on cognitive development and moral reasoning could no doubt be adapted to studies at a lower level. The matter reaches beyond the classroom so as to affect even those who, for whatever reasons, are unable or unwilling to participate in formal educational programs.

Our point here has been to identify the distinguishing principles, approaches, methods, and aims of liberal arts programs in prisons that account for their ability to effect individual change, so as to apply these, insofar as possible, to correctional policy and practice generally. We have described in some detail the Boston University program and cited Stephen Duguid's brilliant analysis of the Canadian programs in an attempt to establish what it is that (if one looks at their low recidivism records) makes them "education befitting free men."

The key lies here--in the fundamental assumption of human rationality and human moral autonomy upon which such education is based. This carries with it not only a recognition of the common humanity that links criminal, victim, jailer, and "innocent bystander," by the respect for all of these that goes with such recognition. It helps the law-abiding citizen, including the correctional officer, to resist surrender to the comfortable notion that "they," who are doing time for what may be heinous crimes, are virtually a different species, not like "us." "We have been accustomed to being treated as creatures not quite human," reads Lenny Westmoreland's editorial in the Norfolk inmates' newspaper. "Speak with a B.U. professor for two minutes and you sense that he or she views us, here and now, as worthy human beings. That makes all the rest--the courses, the tests, the hours of study--possible in this brutal environment." There is a model here that might well be considered for the education of correctional officers as well as their wards.

There is a model here, in fact, for our entire society. We have described a kind of education that challenges prisoners to open their minds to new ideas and perceptions of the world, to assume responsibility for their own values, beliefs, and actions, to embrace the risk of self-change. We have indicated how this results in recognition of a common human condition, hence respect for, and responsiblity toward, all who share in it. If this is its effect upon the prisoner's attitude toward his fellow-man, then a similar effect on the public's attitude toward the prisoner might help us all to recognize that he <u>is</u> a fellow-man. We can think of nothing more likely to reduce the number of those who must get their education inside prison walls than to invest in our common humanity by making available to all people an "education befitting free men."

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LIFE SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMS IN A CAPTIVE ENVIRONMENT

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The Hillsborough Correctional Institution, located in Balm, Florida, is designed for youthful first offenders. As such, its organization, staff, facilities, programs offered and treatment of the inmate population all differ widely from those found in state or federal penitentiaries. Though all of the prisoners in the institution have been convicted of a felony charge, it is felt that such inmates have a better chance of rehabilitation and reintegration into the community than do older criminals; since they offer less resistance to meaningful opportunities of education, behavior change and positive growth. The youthful offender program subscribes to the philosophy that is the responsibility of the correctional system to make available to the offender, either in the institution or in the community, the means to develop the knowledge and acquire the skills that will enable him to survive beyond the prison walls; knowledge and skills that are practical and can be used when the inmate eventually re-enters society. In addition, it is recognized that the system must provide a positive environment and the social and vocational guidance necessary so that the youthful offender can grow in self-confidence, responsibility and self esteem and develop the emotional maturity essential for success once he is released. Counseling for all inmates requiring or requesting it is a major component of the total program, and its goals are threefold: to provide an integrated approach to individualized planning in terms of treatment, training, work experience, release and follow-up; to provide physically safe and psychologically healthy living and learning environments and; to provide program opportunities which include emphasis on responsibility to self, sound decision-making and problem solving, and the formation of health relationships.

During the past year, the author has been deeply involved in one such program, the Life Skills Program at Hillsborough Correctional Institution, and it will be the intent of this paper to explain the program, define the problem

areas focused upon, discuss the techniques employed, and evaluate the reasons for the success or failure of various segments of the program.

The Life Skills Program consists of six modules designed to meet the need of inmates at different stages of their incarceration from reception through parole supervision. The author has only been involved with the second module, overview, therefore a discussion of the other modules would be irrelevant. The first module, Reception, is intended to introduce all new inmates to the Life Skills Program as they go through the induction process upon entrance to the correctional institution. The second module, Overview, is intended to develop interpersonal communication skills and personal responsibility in the first six months of the inmate's incarceration. The remaining four modules concentrate on such skills as goal setting attainment, employability, personal planning and stress management as the offender progresses through and finally out of the correctional system.

Overview Module

Overview consists of seven units designed to enhance ten life skills: 1. developing self assessment ability, 2. understanding principles of motivation, 3. personal value clarification, 4. developing personal responsibility, 5. describing and understanding personal feeling, 6. portraying one's real self, 7. handling changes in behavior, 8. developing personal communication skills, 9. giving and receiving feedback, and 10. setting personal goals. What follows is an explanation of problem areas and techniques used and an evaluation of the program's effectiveness.

Unit 1, entitled Understanding Life Skills, requires approximately three hours to conduct, and, at the end of the session it is expected that each participant will be able to choose to participate in an interpersonal group experience designed to help participants get acquainted. One technique that has

proved useful is for the counselor to pair the inmates and give each participant five minutes to relate personal information that will enable his partner to know him better. After all the inmates have had the opportunity to both speak and listen, the counselor can reconvene the group and ask each member to introduce his partner, giving as much information as he can recall and any of his own reactions that he wishes to disclose. The counselor should encourage general discussion of the experience of speaking and listening including reactions to the group process experience. Trust might be spoken of as a group process ingredient. It may also be useful for the counselor to give some guidelines for appropriate feedback such as I-statements of personal reaction to what has been heard rather than advice or judgmental comments.

In the setting of a correctional institution, though most if not all of the inmate participants will know each other by sight and perhaps by name before attending this session, almost all will be virtual strangers to one another and at first may be highly reluctant to impart anything but the most general information to each other. In addition, as this would be the first meeting of the group there would likely be rather widespread shyness and embarrassment which often tends to disguise itself behind an initial facade of sarcastic humor and off-color remarks. The counselor should be prepared for such reactions and be ready to fill in any gaps in the conversation flow which may occur. As the group settles down and becomes interested such behavior almost inevitably diminishes, and a policy of negative reinforcement to the disturbers and positive reinforcement to those actively involved is usually sufficient to extinguish the disruptive interruptions.

Unit 2, entitled Self-Introduction: Developing Trust in the Group, requires approximately three hours to conduct, and its purpose is to initiate trusting relationships within the group and begin to work on basic communi-

cation skills such as active listening. As a result of the session, the inmates will have the opportunity to choose to disclose a moderate amount of personal information, express personal feelings about the program in a non-confrontive manner; be able to rely and depend on other group members by taking part in interdependent group activities, demonstrate the ability to actively listen and do so in group activities.

Two techniques have proved useful in attaining these objectives. The first is an exercise called Getting Acquainted. Once again the counselor divides the group into pairs (making sure that the partners are not the same as they were in Unit 1) and instructs the participants to spend the next ten minutes getting to know one another. The inmates take turns interviewing each other, without note-taking. The counselor instructs them to avoid demographic data and to try instead to find out what kind of characteristics the interviewee has. It might be useful for the counselor to suggest that the listeners paraphrase often to make sure they are hearing what was intended. After the interview phase, the group members reassemble and are one by one given the opportunity of introducing their partner to the other members. Each inmate stands behind his partner and introduces him by speaking in the first person, as if he were that inmate. After each introduction is completed, the person being introduced is asked to share his reaction to the experience, and any other members of the group are encouraged to make comments. This has proven to be a highly effective method of stimulating group discussion and interaction and has provoked considerable comment dealing with the imposed values and selective perceptions inherent in the interview questions as well as those implied by the ordering, weighting and interpretation during the introduction. On many occasions, inmates have gained the insight that, when they talk about another, they reveal a lot about themselves as well.

The second exercise in Unit 2 is called People and Experience That Made Me, Me. Each inmate is given a list containing several options or suggestions he might want to use to talk about himself. Some possible inclusions might be: 1. Who are some people and what are some experiences that have helped shape your present life? 2. What is the difference between the way you saw yourself five years ago and the way you see yourself now? Who or what has made the difference, if any? The purpose of this exercise is to provide the inmate with an opportunity to look at himself in terms of the people and experiences that have helped form his identity. As he shares these formative experiences with others and listens to others do so, he will often discover in what ways he is similar to other people and in what ways he is unique. It can be a positive experience for an inmate to talk about his life to other offenders who listen and understand, but it can also be somewhat frightening. Some inmates are shy or lack confidence in talking before a group; others don't want anyone to know them really well or are afraid they won't know what to say or will say the wrong things. The counselor should let each inmate decide who or what he wants to talk about and should not allow any pressure to be put upon a speaker to say something he may not want to share. Inmates should be encouraged to focus primarily upon positive experiences and valued persons rather than on dates or chronology, and should be told that it is unnecessary for them to cover their whole life. By the end of this second session, the group has begun to acquire its own personality and the individual members usually feel more comfortable with each other.

Unit 3, entitled Self-Assessment: Taking a Look at Yourself, requires approximately three hours to conduct and its purpose is to require inmates to set short term goals and work to achieve them. In the course of this session inmates will state some of their personal values, strengths and weaknesses and

originate an individual short term goal, which can be accomplished in one week, then verbalize the specific steps to its achievement. During the session, the ideas of "self-concept" and "personal responsibility" will be examined in group discussion, and, at the end of the session (and the week) inmates will describe to the group their attempts to achieve their short term goal and will be given the chance to express the characteristics of their own self-concept. Three techniques have proven successful in helping inmates to achieve some of the objectives aimed at in this unit. The first is an exercise called Short Term Goal Setting, which demonstrates to the inmates what individual short term goals are and their value in attaining practical and realistic results. To open this session, the counselor explains the concept of a short term goal and the importance of using appropriate and pragmatic steps and strategies to attain it. It might be useful for the counselor to illustrate his point by using a concrete example or by asking the inmates to provide one. Discussion can then take place as to whether the steps and strategies proposed seem to be realistic or not, and if the latter, alternate steps can be proposed. The counselor should allow sufficient time for discussion considering individual abilities and time available and should also encourage I-statements and require the inmates to focus on the importance of successful experiences. Each inmate should then be given a piece of paper, a pencil and an envelope and be asked to write down a personal one week goal with notes about the goal and strategies to be followed. The paper should then be sealed into the envelope and given to the counselor to hold for a week. When the week has passed, the counselor should return the envelopes and allow time for general feedback and discussion as to the success or failure of each individual.

Inmates in the environment of a correctional institution are perhaps more

limited than most in their choices as to goal-setting, but this has been an activity that has produced some surprisingly permanent results. A number of offenders have chosen a reduction in cigarette consumption as their short term goal and more than a few have gone on to stop smoking altogether. Another popular goal setting activity has been for inmates to choose to read a book during the week, and this goal not only allows the inmate to give a short book review to the group but has resulted in an increase in the reading habits in a number of inmates.

The second exercise which has proved successful in stimulating group discussion is that of decision making strategies. The counselor first explains to the troup five different ways in which personal decisions can be made: 1. valuing: by which decisions are made because certain actions or choices represent important values either of oneself or of significance to others. 2. doing: decisions that are made just to be doing something with the person sometimes aware and sometimes unaware that that is what is being done. 3. feeling: decisions made on the basis of good or bad feelings. 4. sensing: decisions made on the basis of a vague sense that the action is right or wrong without any specific ideas or facts as a basis. 5. thinking: decisions made after careful thought, analysis and assessment of the pros and cons involved. During the course of explaining the five methods, the counselor could give examples himself or elicit some from the inmates. Then, the group should be asked to spend the week thinking about decisions they have made and try to decide which of the five methods they are more likely to use. With few exceptions, most inmates state that many of their decisions were made on the basis of feeling or doing, and, almost inevitably, when they speak of the decision they made to commit the crime that resulted in their incarceration, it was made on the basis of either one of those aforementioned

two. Most inmates come to realize that valuing and thinking are far more solid foundations upon which to make a decision.

The third exercise which has also provoked discussion is that of basic preferences. The counselor explains the differences in personality that result from the way people perceive and the way they judge, how people become aware through the senses and through intuition and how some people will evaluate things by thinking and others by feeling. He then asks the inmates to consider and decide whether they tend to favor a judging process (thinking or feeling) or a perceptive process (sensing or intuition). Concrete examples help to illustrate the point, and inmates are often made aware of preferences they were ignnorant of before.

Unit 4, entitled Communication skills: Ways We Receive and Share Information, requires approximately six hours to conduct and its intent is to have the inmates learn and practice some basics of communication. During the course of the session, the inmates will give examples of good and bad communication, discuss the ideas of feedback, listening, reflections of content and feeling and non-verbal communication. They will also demonstrate the ability to listen, to accept and provide feedback and to perform and interpret non-verbal communication. Four techniques have proven to be useful in attaining these objectives. The first, which helps to sensitize the inmates to the need for good communications and emphasizes how frequently common communication failures occur, is one in which each inmate is encouraged to relate a personal experience that illustrates either particularly effective or ineffective communication on their part. After all the inmates have participated, the counselor can point out any common patterns for general discussion. The inmates are then asked to relate experiences in which they felt they were listened to or not listened to attentively, and the counselor can ask for comments on such

essentials as clarity of expression, tone or voice quality and body language that impede or prevent attention or understanding. In the setting of the correctional institution, inmates are often eager to relate experience of being misunderstood by either the security personnel or the administrative staff, but are frequently surprised to discover that the communication breakdown resulted not so much from inattentive listening on the part of others as from inappropriate transmission on their own part. Given the average grade level of educational attainment among the inmates, it is not surprising that many have difficulty in properly verbalizing their thoughts, and, to add to the confusion, many of the non-white inmates speak a patois whose vocabulary is to a large degree unintelligible to any outsider. Moreover, prisoners, like many other sub-groups and professions, have their own vocabulary, and this can be ucilized as a topic for group discussion.

The second exercise deals with words of feeling, and is meant to introduce the inmates to both the many kinds of emotions they can experience and the vocabulary that is used for them. The counselor can encourage the inmates to make the longest list of feeling words they can think of and then have them review the words and share a personal response or experience of one of the feelings mentioned. Pictures from magazines of persons displaying emotions can be used to create a collage, and this can function as a starting point for group discussion. Inmates sometimes enjoy making individual collages and then explaining what they mean to the other members of the group.

A third exercise is useful in introducing the inmates to the notions of paraphrasing and direct restatement, and the differences between the two. The counselor should give examples of each, lead a discussion about them, and then divide the group into pairs in which each partner can get about ten minutes practice in the two skills. After this, the group can be reconvened and the

impressions of both the listeners and the speakers can be discussed. In the course of all these exercises, the counselor may want to introduce other communications concepts which he feels could be particularly relevent to the inmates' situation. Such concepts might include: emotional blocks, hostility, past experience, inarticulateness, stereotyping, physical environment, defensiveness and status. Inmates are usually able to provide relevant examples of most of these ideas once the concepts have been explained and illustrated.

A fourth activity that never fails to be both popular and productive is that of role-playing in which the inmates can become acquainted with different interpersonal strategies for trying to effect change in human systems. The counselor will have to prepare system description and role description handouts for all participants and strategy instruction cards for those playing the change agent roles. Inmates seem to especially enjoy playing the parts of members of the prison staff and some very credible imitations have been given. After about ten minutes of interaction, the counselor can reconvene the group and lead the processing of what has been enacted, eliciting comments from both the participants and the audience. Then the interaction can be redone, but with the participants taking different roles this time. At the end of this interaction, the total group can process the whole experience, discussing which strategies seemed most effective and how different people responded to the different strategies. This exercise is highly rewarding in emphasizing the communication barriers that can exist between the prison staff and the inmates and has provided both of those groups with some valuable insights for avoiding misinterpretations in the future.

Unit 5, entitled Communication Skills: Relating Effectively to Others, requires about four hours to conduct and is a continuation of the previous unit. During the course of this exercise, participants will be able to demonstrate

the ability to make concrete personal statements of both content and feeling to others inside the group and will come to recognize how stereotyping functions as a block to communication. Three activities have proved useful to reach these objectives. In the first, inmates are given the opportunity to experience both isolation and group membership. The counselor first blindfolds the participants and then has them draw differently colored stars from a container. The colored stars are all in groups except for one star which is the only one of its color. The inmates are asked to paste the stars on their foreheads and then remove their blindfolds and form groups with those having similar colored stars. After the groups form, the counselor asks all the members to sit in a circle of chairs and begins a discussion how groups come about and on personal isolation.

The second activity focuses on having the inmates realize how stereotypes are a block to communication and on determining how well attributes of common stereotypes match reality. The counselor asks the inmates to suggest stereotypes, chooses one for analysis and then the attributes of the stereotype are elicited from the participants. This is done with two or three relevant stereotypes and then comments are elicited about people who are from the stereotyped group but do not have one or more of the attributes mentioned. In the setting of the correctional institution, this exercise works well to diminish both black/white and inmate/correctional officer stereotypes.

The third activity is useful in helping inmates disclose personal information in a non-threatening way, letting them experience how others can empathize and provide solutions for personal problems and giving them the chance to provide answers to the difficulties of others. The counselor first divides the inmates into groups and has them think about a specific problem that they have been reluctant to discuss. The inmates are then asked to write the prob-

lem on slips of paper, fold them and put them into a container. The container is shaken and each person draws a problem. Each person there then discusses the problem with the group, trying to understand it and suggesting ways that the problem could be coped with and resolved. After this the whole group reconvenes and the counselor leads a discussion on the experience.

Unit 6, entitled Self-Planning: Decision making, Goal Setting and Taking Action, requires approximately four hours to conduct and its focus is on personal planning. At this stage of the experience, inmates are quite familiar with one another and their ability to communicate has developed. In the course of this session, each inmate will have the chance to develop his own decision making strategies, choose a life skill to teach to another inmate outside the group, originate a plan for doing that, and report the plan to the other members of the group and, finally, originate personal long range goals both for while he is still in prison and after his release. Three activities have been helpful in guiding inmates to accomplish these objectives. In the first activitiy, each inmate is given a handout of a force field analysis of goal behavior. At the top of the sheet, the inmate states his goal. He then makes a list of forces for progress based on the strengths he has shown in the group and a list of forces against progress based on weaknesses he has demonstrated in the group.

In the second activity, inmates are provided the opportunity to practice their communications and relationship skills in a less protected environment by teaching another inmate outside a group one of the life skills. The counselor can begin by discussing how life skills could be useful to other people and elicit comments on how inmates could help others learn some of these skills. Inmates can be given forty-five minutes to plan for teaching a life skill to a particular person outside the session, and the counselor should

mention that all the inmates will have the chance to report on their life skill teaching experiences during the next session.

In the third activity, the counselor leads a discussion on the guidelines for making long-range goals mentioning and asking for comment upon the following: 1. state long-range goals so that the end result is very clear, 2. state long-range goals in measurable terms, 3. state something specific that is able to be done, 4. make goals measurable in terms of time and counted activities, 5. if others are involved, they must be invited, 6. use no alternatives such as "if", "or", "I'll try", and other qualifiers, 7. make the goals something you really want to do, 8. make them particularized so that they involve the first step of action to be taken. It would probably also be helpful if the counselor gives wrong and right examples and the reason for the distinction for each guideline mentioned. After the inmates have completed their goals and the steps to be taken to achieve them, the group can analyze each inmates program and comment as to its feasibility.

Unit 7, the last unit in the module, requires about three hours to conduct and during the session, each inmate will be given the opportunity to state what he has learned from the experience, make suggestions and provide feedback regarding the learning experience and generate enthusiasm for the next life skills training experience. To begin, the counselor can introduce the idea of closure and can then structure a series of rounds in which each inmate is encouraged to make I-statement and to address the other inmates as each states learning, appreciations, suggestions and gives feedback. The counselor may also wish to make some personal statement to learning and appreciation similar to those of the inmates.

One highly important feature about most of the activities mentioned to implement the development of life skills is that the inmates do not need to know

how to read or write to benefit from the experiences. What is important is how well the offenders learn to communicate with one another, and whether or not they make commitments to pursue and achieve personally set goals. It is of greater value that inmates can listen actively than explain why active listening is important. It is more helpful that inmates learn to avoid stereotyping than be able to write a definition of it. Moreover, it is ultimately more important that the inmates set and pursue goals than that they be able to explain why personal goals are important. Group counseling such as that practiced in the life skills program must be primarily nondirective; the inmates have to be encouraged to do most of the talking, with the counselor presiding and seeking to generate a frank discussion on critical issues of inmate behavior and motivation. It must be admitted that the sessions are sometimes dominated by the few most articulate inmates, and often these are personalities who tend to blame their troubles on correctional officers, the police and the criminal justice system in general. But this would occur in informal discussions among inmates in any event, and the counselor along with the other members of the group are generally able to eventually focus the discussion on more realistic and relevant perspectives. Indeed, on many occasions, it has been the other inmates who have proven of great help in controlling potentially disruptive individuals.

While one should not expect any dramatic, sudden changes in inmate behavior due to group counseling, it seems clear that this method has been successful in reducing tensions among inmates and between them and the prison staff. Inmates express their feelings in the counseling sessions with impressive frankness once the initial strangeness of the new experience has been overcome, and early exposure of their complaints often permits incipient problems to be resolved before they become serious. The sessions also demonstrate to

many inmates that staff members are more tolerant and reasonable than they might have appeared to be. For both inmates and staff, the process has tended to break down the stereotypes that each holds of the other.

Perhaps the most encouraging feature of the program is that there is an observable increase in the frequency of inmate participation as the sessions develop. This would seem to indicate that the members are choosing to interact for the intrinsic rewards and the internal sense of accomplishment that has been generated. What is also apparent is that, from the involvement between the group and the individual, many inmates are being led to sufficient insight and motivation to avoid crime in the future, reform and rehabilitation cannot be imposed; an inner and anxious desire for change is a prerequisite, and such a desire is rarely the product of contemplation, exhortation, or severe punishment. It comes more readily from a larger understanding of oneself and one's relationship to society which, in turn, often emerges from interaction in free verbal association with others who have lived and suffered in similar ways.

Youthful, first-time offenders tend to be far more salvageable as a group than older, more experienced criminals. The initial experience of long-term confinement can, in itself, be a frightening and disorientating transition. For these individuals in particular, the process of prisonization and dehumanization is a danger that must be avoided if we are serious about rehabilitation and reintergration into society. Group counseling allows the inmate to express himself in a unique environment and expression is an integral part of the development of ideas, of mental exploration, and of the affirmation of self. The power to realize one's potentiality as a human being begins at this point, and in prison this value is accentuated by the diminished number of outlets for expressions of feeling and desire. Through such counseling activi-

ties, the inmate can be helped to retain his individual identity and his allegiance with external society. The counselor in a correctional institution that houses youthful, first-time offenders has the opportunity and the responsibility of exploring all avenues in an effort to ensure that these inmates' first experience of prison will also be their last.

Note: Modules used in the Life Skills Program were developed by Florida's Department of Corrections and the Division of Community Colleges.

P.L. 94-142 AND THE INCARCERATED ADULT: A LEGAL ANALYSIS AND CASE STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

This paper addresses the general legal issue of whether or not the Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA); popularly termed P.L. 94-142 and codified in Title 20 of the United States Code, Section 1400, extends to prisoners in adult correctional institutions? More particularly, the question of whether the EHA together with pertinent provisions of the Iowa Code oblige state authorities to heed the demand of an inmate residing in a maximum security facility for special education services is discussed.

THE LAW

The Constitutional Background of P.L. 94-142

Is there a fundamental right to an education in America? The question was broached by the United States Supreme Court in 1972 in the case of San Antonio School District v. Rodriquez[1] and answered in the negative. However, the status of education as a fundamental right remains problematic.

In 1954 a unanimous Supreme Court issued its famous decision in Brown v. Board of Education declaring education to be "perhaps the most important function of state and local government".[2] The pronouncement in Brown followed similar statements in such landmark decisions as Pierce v. Society of Sisters[3] and Meyer v. Nebraska.[4] Moreover, support for the proposition was added by the Court subsequent to Brown in Abington School District v. Schempp and Wisconsin v. Yoder.[6] Still, the Court, in Rodriquez, finding that fundamental rights flow from explicit or implicit constitutional grants and not from judicial edicts premised on conclusions regarding the relative importance of state services, distinguished its earlier statements and refused to recognize a fundamental right to an education for all Americans.[7] Nevertheless, two years after Rodriquez the Supreme Court laid a different constitutional foundation which evolved into the Education For All Handicapped Children Act.

In Lau v. Nichols[8] non-English speaking public school students were found to have been deprived of equal protection of the laws where the district, while providing free access to school, failed to provide instruction necessary to effective use of the facilities and resources by the group. This decision was applied to handicapped students by the U.S. District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania in Frederick L. v. Thomas.[9]

Additionally, several courts have declared that due process guarantees to protect beneficiaries such as handicapped students from arbitrary deprivation or rights and privileges afforded them through state law or administrative regulation. The Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (P.A.R.C.) successfully defended before a three judge panel of the U.S. District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania a consent decree affording an educational opportunity for retarded students which equaled that afforded all others[10] and provided the grounds for the District of Columbia Circuit to declare the summary exclusion of retarded people from public schools there violative of Fourteenth Amendment due process protections.[11]

In short, as one commentator has observed[12], there is no clear definition of the constitutional basis underlying educational rights for the handicapped. Still, they have gained recognition and enforcement on a case by case basis utilizing the fundamental law of the land. This authority predates and supplements the legislative initiatives now to be discussed.

The Education of the Handicapped Act[13]

A. Background and Purpose

In the earlier nineteen seventies Congress investigated public education for handicapped students and found, among other things, that there were more than eight million handicapped children in the U.S., that over a million of these were being excluded totally from public education because of their handicaps, while many were being prevented from achieving educational success because of both detected and undetected problems. Because of these deficiencies parents were forced to seek help from private sources at great expense and distance from home and family. Finding that it was in the national interest to

insure equal protection of the law for the handicapped, Congress enacted P.L. 94-142 to aid, with funding assistance, state and local systems in providing adequate educational opportunity to this special group.[14]

The stated purpose of the Act is:

> "to assure that all handicapped children have available to them... a free appropriate public education which emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs..."[15]

B. Definitions

Several terms used in the statute commanded definition. Thus, "handicapped children" are those who are mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech or language impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, or otherwise health impaired, and children with specific learning disabilities who require special education as a result.[16] A "handicapped youth" fits the general definition and is twelve years of age or older or enrolled in the seventh or higher grade.[17] The term "children with specific learning disabilities incorporates those with perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, developmental aphasia or other impairments of basic psychological processes resulting in imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or do mathematical calculations".[18] When the statute speaks of "special education", free, unique instruction specially designed to accomodate the individual is intended. This instruction can include classroom attendance, home schooling, physical education, or training provided in hospitals or institutions.[19] The Code of Federal Regulations enhances the statutory definition of "special education" by including "vocational education" within the definition. This incorporates preparation "for paid or unpaid employment, or for additional preparation for a career requiring other than a baccalaureate or advanced degree".[20] Finally, the statute mandates a "free appropriate public education (F.A.P.E.)"

for every handicapped child pursuant to an "individualized education program". In short, participating states must establish standards for preschool, elementary and secondary school education. They must then provide, at public expense, education to all handicapped students which can be identified together with the services necessary to facilitate such instruction.[21] The goal of providing a free appropriate public education, according to the statute, is to be accomplished through a process of identification, education, and placement of each student carried out by parents, teachers, representative of the state, local educational agencies, and other professionals.[22]

C. Funding and Eligibility

As set out in the statement of purpose the EHA seeks to provide funding assistance to states and local educational agencies in order to insure equal education opportunity for all. This is accomplished by making available to eligible jurisdictions federal monies for distribution to local districts and eligible students. This process is executed according to a formula which provides a sum derived from multiplying the number of students between the ages of three and twenty-one in a specific state by five percent of the average per pupil expenditure in public elementary and secondary schools in America.[23] To be eligible, a state must establish a policy assuring the right to a free appropriate education to all handicapped children. Then it must develop a plan to implement the policy and file the document with the Secretary of Education.[24] However, the eligibility requirements do not apply to children aged three to five and youth between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one if such requirement is inconsistent with state law, practice or court order regarding public education for those groups.[25]

Nonetheless, the state must establish, in addition to generalized procedural safeguards:

> "procedures to assure that, to the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped children, including children in public or private institutions or other care facilities are educated with children who are not handicapped..."[26]

D. Procedural Guarantees

The earlier referred to procedural safeguards are an integral part of the EHA. The statute requires any agency which receives federal assistance to promulgate and maintain a system of protections to assure that all handicapped students receive an education and that the rights of parents and guardians are preserved. These safeguards include an opportunity to examine all relevant records regarding identification, evaluation, and placement, and to obtain an independent evaluation; procedures for the appointment of a guardian to act as a surrogate if the parents or guardian are unknown; prior written notice whenever a change, or refusal to initiate a change, in a student's individual education plan is contemplated; procedures to assure full understanding, in a native language, of any notice to parents or guardian; an opportunity to present complaints regarding an individual education plan; and the opportunity to have such complaints heard by the appropriate educational agency in objective fashion as part of a due process hearing.[27]

Any aggrieved party may appeal a decision of a local or area educational agency to a state agency for review. There an independent officer is empowered to hear evidence and to arrive at independent findings of fact and conclusions of law.[28] Following this process a party may petition a state or federal court for relief. The statute calls for an independent judicial decision following a review of the administrative record and additional evidence, if requested. The standard of proof is by a preponderance of the evidence.[29]

During the pendency of review proceedings, the statute requires the student to be allowed to remain in his or her current placement. If the action stems from an initial placement application, the child is given an interim placement in the public school program.[30]

E. Responsibilities

Under the EHA the Secretary of Education possesses wide prerogative. He or she may decide to withhold payments to a state agency for noncompliance by it, an area agency or local district.[31] Additionally, the Secretary is delegated the power to promulgate rules and regulations[32], evaluate programs[33], provide for incentive grants[34] and make all payments to participating states.[35] Still, the ultimate responsibility for the delivery of educational services to the handicapped lies with the states. The statute holds the state educational agency accountable "for assuring" that the handicapped receive the rights and benefits afforded by the legislation. Moreover, this duty to faithfully execute runs to "all such programs administered by any other state or local agency..."[36]

The Iowa Code

The bulk of statutory control of education for the handicapped in Iowa resides in three chapters of the Iowa Code. The first, Chapter 273, creates and empowers the Area Educational Agency. The second, Chapter 280, establishes Uniform School Requirements. Finally, Chapter 281, specifically details Education of Children Requiring Special Education.

A. Substantive Statutes

Chapter 280 of the Code requires each public school district to "make ade-

quate educational provisions for each resident child requiring special education appropriate to the nature and severity of the child's handicapping condition..."[37] From that enabling legislation a division of special education is created within the state department of public instruction[38] and empowered to, among other things, organize and supervise the system of special education in the state; make rules for approving special education plans and for generally executing the statute; adopt special education plans; purchase, acquire, loan and lease special education equipment, appliances and aids; conduct physical and psychological examinations and to prescribe minimum standards, including courses of study and curricula for admission to special schools, classes or instruction; cooperate with local districts and area education agencies in establishing and maintaining special education in the state departments of human services and public health, state school for the deaf, the braille and sight saving school, tuberculosis sanatorium, children's hospitals and other agencies "concerned with the welfare and health of children requiring special education..."; provide for special education research and develop model programs.[39]

Definitionally, "children requiring special education" in Iowa are those under twenty-one years of age who, because of mental or physical handicaps, communication and learning disabilities or behavior disorders are prevented from obtaining necessary schooling.[40] Said "special education" is individually designed instruction taking place in a classroom, home, hospital, or institution. Where a child cannot adapt to regular educational or home living circumstances and is institutionalized in residential or detention facilities operated by the department of human services, the area educational agency must provide special education programs and services.[41] This education, if reasonably possible, must be commensurate with the level of education provided non-

handicapped children and shall be financed pursuant to legislative mandates for area educational agencies (Chapter 273.9) and the School Foundation Program (Chapter 442).[42]

It is important to note that the Iowa legislature, in addition to referring to institutionalized students in the definition section of Chapter 281, makes a more definitive statement regarding youths in these circumstances later on. Section 281.12 requires tnat any child placed in a facility or home by the district court receive special education programs and services on the same basis as special education students who are residents of the school district in which the youth is placed. The area education agency is responsible for administering such programs and costs are to be paid to the district or agency providing the services.

B. The Area Education Agency

The Iowa General Assembly created the Area Educational Agency (AEA) for the specific purpose of providing "effective, efficient, and economical means of identifying and serving" children in need of special education.[43] Arranged in fifteen areas throughout the state and governed by an independent board[44], the AEA is specifically charged with providing educational programs and media services to local districts in the area.[45] Additionally, each AEA board is authorized, among other things, to determine policy, receive and expend money, gather data and prepare reports, contract for services and programs to be provided to local districts within the area, to enter into cooperative agreements with other area agencies, and provide a full range of services to children of school age in juvenile homes.[46]

The services mandated by the general assembly and broadly administered by the area educational agency are funded through local district budgets and provided at the local level where feasible. Otherwise contractual arrangements

between area agencies and service providers is called for by the statute. In any case, the local districts are specifically directed to cooperate with the area agencies in providing appropriate special education services for each child identified.[47] The sole exception to the rule provided by the statute concerns appropriations for children in juvenile homes. In such cases, the administrator of the area agency is responsible for determining the annual costs of these programs and the amount due is paid by the state treasurer directly to the area agency for distribution.[48]

THE LEGAL ISSUE

Much has been said thus far concerning the obligation of public education to extend programs and services to every child, despite physical or mental handicap. However, neither P.L. 94-142 or state codes address the question of whether or not the right to a free appropriate public education extends so far as to include those who otherwise fall within the purview of the statutory law but have been convicted of a crime and incarcerated in an institution for adults. The remainder of the paper will do so utilizing a representative hypothetical situation.

Jerry lives in a university community in southeast Iowa. To the long time residents of the community he and his family are well known. One of eleven children, Jerry is the product of an incestuous relationship between his uncle and older sister. Born to a sixteen year old mother, Jerry grows up in a fatherless household supported by public aid and small amounts of money earned by his brothers and sisters delivering newspapers, collecting recyclable trash and occasionally engaging in acts of prostitution. The family is functionally illiterate. With the exception of an older sister who graduated from high school and married a serviceman, none of Jerry's siblings progressed beyond

the eighth grade. Jerry follows suit and, in fact, is thought of by his family and caseworkers to be slightly retarded.

Jerry's nineteenth birthday happens to fall on the same day as the big football game with the cross state rival. Caught up in the atmosphere, Jerry makes the rounds of the student bars. While sitting alone in one crowded emporium, his eye catches a particularly striking coed dressed in gold and red. She appears to be having an argument with her escort and suddenly leaves alone. Jerry, enthralled with her beauty, picks up his bottle of beer and follows her. Outside he approaches the girl and is rudely spurned. A struggle ensues, the girl's clothing is ripped and she is severely lacerated about the face and arms with the broken bottle. Jerry is taken into custody after several passersby subdue him and aid the girl. After much publicity in the only statewide newspaper, Jerry pleads guilty to a variety of felony charges and is sentenced to an extended term in the state maximum security penitentiary. Soon after arriving, he is contacted by a law intern working with a university sponsored prisoner's rights project. The student is familiar with Jerry's case and sets out to assist him. The intern's first act is to petition the court for a writ requiring prison officials to provide Jerry with special education services.

Basic Rights of Prisoners

For much of America's history, and to a great extent today, the prevailing societal view was that, once convicted of a crime, a felon suffered total deprivation of all civil rights. This perception was given the force of law in one state when it was declared that a prisoner is "the slave of the state".[49] This philosophy, though overly harsh, persisted for nearly a century in the form of "hands-off" policy in judicial scrutiny of prison operation. Courts

steered clear of prison cases opting to allow correctional officials wide discretion in the administration of a very special governmental function. However, with the larger civil rights movement following World War II came prisoner's rights initiatives and in 1974 the Supreme Court declared that "there is no iron curtain drawn between the Constitution and the prisons of this country".[50] Indeed, the Eighth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution is directed specifically at the protection of prisoners with its proscription of cruel and unusual punishments. Moreover, no other constitutional provision specifically accepts those incarcerated for crimes from protection. The Fourteenth Amendment, for example, prohibits governmental action which deprives any person of life, liberty or property without due process of law or denies "any person within its jurisdiction" equal protection of the law. Finally, federal law specifically protects the civil rights of institutionalized people. The Civil Rights of Institutionalized Persons Act[51] provides the Attorney General of the United States with the authority to institute a civil action in federal district court whenever there is reasonable cause to believe that any state, or political subdivision thereof, is subjecting confined individuals to "egregious or flagrant conditions" which are deprivational to any rights, privileges or immunities guaranteed by the Constitution or laws of the United States.[52]

Prisoners' Rights of Access to Education

It must be stated at the outset that the rule of Rodriquez applies inside the prison walls just as it does outside. Thus, those incarcerated have no greater right to an education than the general population. However, the Iowa Code is quite specific in its mandate to the director of the state department of corrections. Specifically, the Code states:

"The director shall...establish and maintain acceptable standards of treatment, training, education, and rehabilitation in the various state penal and corrective institutions which shall include habilitative services and treatment for mentally retarded offenders...the director may also provide rehabilitative treatment and services to other persons who require the services...In assigning a mentally retarded offender, or an offender with an inadequately developed intelligence or with impaired mental abilities, to a correctional facility, the director shall consider both the program needs and the security needs of the offender."[53] (emphasis added)

Additionally, the general assembly directed that:

"the department and the director shall cooperate with any department or agency of the state government in any manner..."[54]

The Education for the Handicapped Act, though not mentioning those sentenced to adult penitentiaries, declares in the statement of purpose that the Act is intended to assure that all handicapped children have access to a free appropriate education.[55] The term children as defined is enhanced in the 1983 revision of the Act with the introduction of the term "handicapped youth". This term extends EHA benefits to those who are age twelve or older or enrolled in the seventh grade or higher.[56] The Act speaks in terms of identifying and providing special education benefits to every eligible individual.[57] Section 1412 specifically makes "all handicapped children" between the ages of three and twenty-one eligible for services unless contrary to state law or policy.[58] Additionally, the 1983 revisions of the Act authorize the Secretary of Education to make grants and to contract with postsecondary and vocational institutions to develop and maintain programs for the education and training of "handicapped individuals".[59] The term individuals, as defined, does nothing to limit the earlier definitions of those eligible.[60] Finally, Section 1425 establishes a means of cooperation between education officials and the administrative structure operating the Job Training Partnership Act to assist handicapped youth in making the transition to "postsecondary education,

vocational training, competitive employment, continuing education, or adult services."[61] Such joint efforts are to emphasize the development of strategies, techniques and programs which promote independent living and competitive employment for the handicapped.[62]

The Code of Federal Regulations strengthens the apparent universality of the Act. In setting out the scope of application, the C.F.R. holds that each state must submit an annual plan. This plan:

> "is submitted by the state educational agency on behalf of the state as a whole. Therefore, the provisions of this part apply to all political subdivisions of the state that are involved in the education of handicapped children. These include...state correctional facilities."[63]

Full educational opportunity is the goal. Two separate subparts of the Code section implementing the Education of the Handicapped Act refer to the ultimate end of insuring a comprehensive effort by each participating state and its agencies to provide every eligible individual with a full range of programs and services.[64]

The Iowa Code follows suit. Chapter 280 mandates adequate education opportunity for every handicapped child in every local school district[65] and throughout each educational area.[66] Children placed in facilities and homes by the court are specifically included.[67]

Thus a preliminary conclusion can be drawn in favor of a prisoner twenty-one years of age or under who otherwise meets the criteria for eligibility. As a matter of fact, the only case decision to address the question, Green v. Johnson,[68] supports this analysis.

John Green, for himself and a class made up of inmates of the Franklin and Hampshire County Houses of Correction sought an injunction in the U.S. District Court of Massachusetts seeking to compel state correctional and educa-

tional officials to provide special education services for the plaintiffs. Finding, first of all, that the Education for the Handicapped Act "establishes a program of cooperative federalism" in providing special education[69] and that Massachusetts corrections officials were under legislative mandate to establish and maintain education programs[70], the District Court ruled that the incarcerated status of the plaintiffs did not "eviscerate" their eligibility under the Act.[71]

The "Inconsistent With State Law" Exception and Fundamental Rights

Despite the weight of the foregoing authority, a statutory exception is significant. Section 1412 of the Act states in part:

> "...except that, with respect to handicapped children aged three to five and aged eighteen to twenty-one inclusive, the requirements of this clause shall not be applied in any state if the application of such requirements would be inconsistent with state law or practice, or the order of any court, respecting public education within such age groups in the state."[72]

The question arises; does providing special education to persons eighteen to twenty-one incarcerated in state penal institutions contradict Iowa law or policy?

The age question is easily answered. Iowa law defines "children requiring special education" as those "under twenty-one years of age..."[73] Consequently, even assuming that Iowa prison inmates are otherwise eligible, those between the age of twenty-one and twenty-two are not. The exception provides the authority for the difference between state and federal requirements.

The more difficult question surrounds the eligibility for special education services of Iowa prison inmates as a class. There are various provisions specifically designed to insure that institutionalized juveniles are served. A brief review shows that the department of public instruction is responsible

for administering the system in schools for the deaf and blind, in hospitals, sanatoria, and other agencies "concerned with the welfare and health of children requiring special education".[74] Additionally, children placed by the district court must be served in a manner commensurate with other residents of the school district surrounding the placement facility.[75] Finally, the administrator of each area educational agency must make special provision for determining the costs and delivering special education to juvenile homes within the area.[76] However, the statutes do not specifically include or exclude otherwise eligible institutionalized adults and the lack of mention forces a more fundamental analysis. Can it be fairly argued that the Iowa General Assembly failed to address the topic of special education for prison inmates because it sought to exclude them? If so, is such action in keeping with the constitutions of the United States and the state of Iowa, other state law, and the policy of the Education for the Handicapped Act?

The equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution assures that states will treat similarly situated people alike. If they do not, the state action must be grounded in a rational state purpose at the least and, in the cases of fundamental rights or certain suspect classes, a compelling state interest at most. The equal protection clause of the Iowa Constitution states:

> "All laws of a general nature shall have a uniform operation; the General Assembly shall not grant to any citizen, or class of citizens, privileges or immunities, which, upon the same terms shall not equally belong to all citizens."[77]

Congress has determined that it is in the national interest that states and localities meet the needs of handicapped individuals in order to assure equal protection of the law.[78] The State of Iowa has declared its policy to require all school districts to provide, "as an integral part of public edu-

cation, for the instructional needs of all children requiring special education".[79] These more general statements coupled with specific directions of cooperation made to both educational administrators and corrections officials should be sufficient to blunt any argument for excluding prison inmates aged eighteen to twenty-one.[80]

Still, the Iowa statute mandates special education for every child "if reasonably possible"[81] and a conceivable argument is that providing special education to adult felons is not "reasonably possible". Factors creating such a situation may be the lack of funds or the vainness of such an effort. The latter reason may stem from a belief that convicts are undeserving of such services or that state resources would be wasted since the maximum duration of any individual program would be two years. The insufficient funds argument was addressed by the U.S. District Court for the District of Columbia in the case of Mills v. Board of Education[82] where it was held that a failure to provide a f.a.p.e. where appropriate "cannot be excused by the claim that there are insufficient funds".[83] The claim that felons are undeserving may well give rise to private actions by affected parties asserting, in addition to Fourteenth Amendment protections, guarantees against cruel and unusual punishment. Additionally, the provisions of the Civil Rights of Institutionalized Persons Act might well provide grounds for a separate federal action alleging an egregious or flagrant violation of basic rights.[84] This leaves the argument that the law does not require the doing of a vain act. If the law was such that all education and training was stopped when a recipient reached age twenty-one, the argument might well be dispositive. However, with the generalized delegation of perrogative to conduct research and to develop new programs contained in both the EHA and the Iowa statutes no clear cut deadline is present. Additionally, the 1983 revisions of the EHA authorizing grants and

contracts for the development and maintenance of postsecondary training programs for handicapped individuals,[85] together with the cooperative nature of the Job Training and Partnership Act,[86] effectively negate the credibility of such a position.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

From the foregoing analysis a reasonable conclusion is that Jerry, the nineteen year old composite of many biologically and environmentally handicapped people who violate social norms, can justifiably demand special education services from the state of Iowa. No longer the slave of the state, Jerry stands as a person assured of equal protection of the law. Thus, he is included in the general policy of full educational opportunity for all between the ages of five and twenty-one promulgated by both the federal Education for the Handicapped Act and the state Education for Children Who Require Special Education Act. Moreover, there appears to be no rational purpose for excluding an inmate of an institution for adult correction when those of similar age and status originally placed in juvenile correctional facilities, perhaps for committing similar acts, are specifically provided for by both the EHA and Iowa law.

Consequently, in a time when public opinion demands vengence and deprivation in penology, a writ may well issue requiring the administrator of the area education agency to make the necessary arrangements for evaluation and development of an individualized program of education and training for Jerry.

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5. 374 U.S. 203, 230 (1963).
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8. 414 U.S. 563 (1974).
9. 408 F. Supp. 946 (E.D. Pa., 1975).
10. Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Citizens v. Pennsylvania 334 F. Supp. 1251 (E.D. Pa., 1971).
11. Mills v. Board of Education 348 F. Supp. 866 (D.C. Cir., 1972).
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14. Ibid., 1400 (b).
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16. Ibid., 1401 (a) (1) (1983).
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23. Ibid., 1411 (a) (1983).

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25. Ibid., 1412 (2) (3) (1975); 45 C.F.R. 121a, 121c (1979).

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28. Ibid., 1415 (c) (d) (1975).

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PREPARING MENTALLY HANDICAPPED OFFENDERS

IN A PRISON SETTING

FOR RELEASE INTO SOCIETY

Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting
of the Correctional Education Association
Cincinnati, Ohio

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Preparing Mentally Handicapped Offenders In A Prison Setting For Release Into Society

Historical Bases/Introduction

The world's first attempt at what has become known as prisoner rehabilitation through education occurred at Bridewell House of Corrections in sixteenth century England (Roberts, 1984). According to Roberts, the Bridewell prison provided vocational training for those who lacked skills and had been imprisoned due to poverty. That earliest of efforts to operate a prison in a rehabilitative manner rather than simply a punishment or holding place left an important legacy to prison reform and prisoner rehabilitation. In America, the origin of prison educational programs stems back to the 1830's when one of the first schools for adult prisoners was established in Maryland, followed by the passing of a law in 1847 appointing instructors to the prisons of New York State (Jengeleski, 1984).

Today, a century and a half after the New York law was instated, educational and vocational programs for institutionalized adults have become an integral component in the rehabilitative offerings at our state and federal facilities nationwide. This paper will identify programs available to mentally handicapped inmates in one state prison system, and describe how each department within that system works to help prepare these inmates for release into society.

The Mentally Retarded Offenders Program: Overview

The Mentally Retarded Offenders Program (MROP) of the Texas Department of Corrections was established in November of 1983. Its purpose was to establish special housing, counseling and program assistance, and education for those in-

mates who were screened by TDC as mentally handicapped and in need of these services. The program initially began with one staff psychologist and three counselors to help identified MROP clients with their daily needs. There are today four psychologists, three supervisors and over thirty case managers working with the MROP clientele, not including support staff and educational personnel involved with the program. The MROP currently exists on two TDC units: the Beto One Unit (men) and the Valley Unit (women). TDC has established a method of screening these inmates for the programs through a series of tests and interviews usually conducted during the diagnostic/intake phase of processing. At the point of intake, an inmate is administered the Otis test in a group setting. If he scores below 70 on this general screening exam, he is given a second administration of the test individually. If he then scores below 70 for a second time, he is administered the Culture Fair IQ Test. If he also scores below 70 on the Culture Fair, he is given the WAIS-R on an individual basis. If the inmate scores below a Full Scale IQ of 74, additional information is gathered for prospective MROP programming - which may include any necessary psychological reports, social summaries, adaptive behavior assessments and other information. Given that all data appears indicative of significantly subaverage intellectual functioning with accompanying adaptive deficits, the inmate is assigned to the MROP. It should be noted that TDC is certainly not the only prison system that pre-screens inmates for possible intellectual deficiency - Denkowski and Denkowski (1985) report that thirty-six state prison systems routinely assessed incoming inmates for mental retardation at the time of their study.

The Texas Department of Corrections houses a total inmate population of over 36,000 men and women, and of that total it has been variously estimated that between 700 and 1500 inmates are mentally retarded by the accepted stan-

dards employed. Approximately 1,000 inmates are currently assigned to the MROP · over 90% being men at the Beto I Unit. At the Beto I MROP, psychologists and other treatment staff are responsible for further evaluation of newly arrived clients, with the goal being to formulate an Individualized Habilitation Plan for each individual. A psychological evaluation is prepared within the first thirty days based on background information and WAIS-R findings from the diagnostic phase. If a given client has specific communication problems, sexual problems or any of a wide array of other focal problems then therapy is recommended. If drugs or alcohol abuse has been a factor in the inmate's background, then he will be referred to the substance abuse counselor for individual and group counseling. If 'dually diagnosed', i.e. psychiatrically disordered, then the MROP staff can refer the client to the unit psychiatrist to determine if medication, therapy and follow-up is indicated. Basically, the MROP treatment team is responsible for determining and then locating treatment for the problems besides mental retardation that a given client may be experiencing (Ishman, 1985).

MROP case managers are the staff members responsible for handling their client's needs on a day-to-day basis. They att pt to help each assigned inmate on their caseload to put in for class/status promotions, shop at the commissary, write letters and other correspondence, remain aware of TDC rules and regulations, receive proper medical care when needed, and in general act as overall aide and confidante to the client.

Correctional Education: A Challenge

Prison educators in just about any correctional setting face difficult challenges on a daily basis. Inmates as a rule do not always make the most cooperative students. College faculty of today who have the experience and

training to prepare educators for work in correctional settings are indeed few (Mesinger, 1984). Mesinger advises that professionals just into adulthood themselves are frequently bewildered when their young pupils do not respond when expected to their manifest good will, and he goes on to report that to become a somewhat successful teacher in prison these professionals must be helped in formulating reasonable expectations for themselves and their charges.

The MROP school was established in December of 1983. It began with a principal and two teachers, and now has a staff of over twenty teaching and support personnel. Regular academic programs following the Windham School System curriculum comprise nine of the classes, while special education instructors man seven of the other classes. A Pre-Release program is in place, as well as a Chapter I instructional assistance program. Four vocational training classes are currently in place, with several others planned for the near future. Subjects taught in the WSS regular and special programs include Reading, Language Arts/Writing, Mathematics, Science, Social Sciences and various Life Skills. The number of days an inmate is allowed to attend school may range from the single required day to as many as five, with many students being enrolled in both academic and vocational programs - depending on the inmate's desires and the approval of the principal and TDC security personnel.

In Windham programs, referrals of prospective special education student can come to the unit educational diagnostician from a classroom teacher, another department within TDC, or from the inmate himself. The diagnostician then will, with the adult inmate's signed consent, schedule the inmate for a comprehensive assessment of determination of whether special education assistance in all or selected subject areas is indicated. The diagnostician uses modern testing techniques and employs a number of widely known instruments such as the WAIS-R, the Brigance Inventory, the Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-

Educational Battery and other assessment instruments - all used in attempts to determine the inmate's state of intellectual, psychological and educational functioning. Since most students in the MROP school are first placed into a regular academic program upon arriving at the unit, in-class observations are also used as an important component in the diagnostic evaluation. An individualized program is then developed for the special education candidate during the Admission, Dismissal and Review Committee Meeting (which the inmate, of course, attends) and with the consent of all participating Committee members the inmate may then be reassigned to special education. The special education instructor will design lesson plans and implementation instruments which prescribe a wide and varied assortment of printed and audio-visual materials selected to best further accomplishment of the specified objectives on the student's Individualized Educational Plan. Each student in the special education class is also reviewed on a quarterly basis for indications of progress, at which point minor revisions may be instated in the teaching plan for that student. It should be noted that in the Windham special education program all regulations and procedures adhere with the legal guidelines of the Texas Education Agency and the provisions of Public Law 94-142.

Pre-Release Programming

The purpose of Pre-Release training in the MROP is, simply, to prepare inmates who are eligible for release into the community within the next six months to meet the basic challenges inherent to daily living. Pre-Release students also continue to attend their assigned academic, special education and/or vocational training classes through the duration of the PR training. This particular type of programming is generally viewed as a beneficial phase in passage back to society. A previous study* by Cohen (1972) had described

eleven needs that ex-offenders may have: occupational training and placement, education, financial assistance, counseling, social-recreational outlets, family relationships, living arrangements, alcohol control, drug control, medical attention and legal help. The Pre-Release program at the MROP does focus on these and other areas insofar as making the prospective releasee aware of where and how services can be obtained in the "free-world" - other areas such as money management, defensive driving and avoiding substance abuse are major components of Pre-Release at the MROP.

Vocational Training

It should be noted that there are at this point four vocational training programs available for MROP inmates: Industrial-Cooperative Training (ICT), CVAE Building Trades, Plumbing and Horticulture. Several other programs are being planned, including the very popular Building Maintenance and Masonry courses. These courses will be available to enrolled academic and special education students, depending upon the inmate's expressed desires, custody classification and approvals by unit security staff.

Psychological Services

Special psychological assessments of inmates referred for mental problems are conducted by psychologists and psychiatrists at each prison unit in TDC as well as at Beto I Unit. A number of therapeutic modes of treatment are available to these inmates depending upon their specific needs, such as psychotropic medication, individual and group counseling and regular follow-up. Inmates who are assessed from the general populations of outlying units are eligible for admission to the MROP if found by mental health personnel to be retarded, and those whose disturbance significantly deters their learning capa-

bilities in the school programs may be further assessed for special education placement as emotionally disturbed students (McAdams, 1985).

Social Services

Social Services is a department established in 1980 to help inmates with various problems they may have during their stay in TDC and to ease the transition for those returning to society. Requests sent by inmates or staff constitute referrals for social services assistance, and the department's counselors also oversee such matters as promotions and classifications of inmates, furloughs, updating housing arrangements, researching records and setting up emergency phone calls. They are also responsible for providing, in part, initial orientations to incoming inmates at each of the 27 TDC units (Woods, 1985).

Parole Assistance

The State Board of Pardons and Paroles is responsible for interviewing inmates coming up for parole consideration, helping decide upon the release of any given inmate to society, and supervising that inmate once he is released from prison. It should be noted here that special notations are made in parole reports to identify mentally handicapped inmates. A special attachment, entitled "Evaluation of Mental Impairments" is included in a parole interview report to help the field officer who might supervise the given inmate while on parole. If an inmate is dually-diagnosed (MR/Mentally Ill) all psychotropic medication he may be taking is noted in the report with a recommendation from the treating psychologist as to whether this medication will need to be continued upon release. If MH/MR counseling is indicated for a given inmate, or if the inmate will need travel assistance to reach his des-

tination when released from TDC, special notations are made in the parole report to see that these needs are met (Fox, 1985).

Conclusion

Mentally handicapped inmates have many of the same problems as mentally impaired persons in the free-world, with the added difficulty of having been placed in prison for the given time period and thus perhaps more out of touch with everyday occurrences in society. It is the challenge of preparing mentally handicapped inmates, while in the institution and afterwards, for meeting the standards of functioning as capable, responsible adults that keeps the people involved in these programs here described as active and dedicated as they truly are.

The body of this paper was composed from interviews conducted by Bob Liles; retyping and referencing was completed by Kevin Faherty. Any opinions expressed herein are those of the first author, and do not reflect the policy of any State agencies or departments therein identified in this paper.

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SELF-PACED VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS IN CORRECTIONAL FACILITIES

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The Corrections Department has provided academic college programs to inmates in New Mexico since 1975. In the late 1970's, inmates filed a suit against the state; this resulted in an out-of-court ruling called a consent decree. In addition to other requirements, the consent decree states that inmates must have access to full-time vocational programs designed to develop marketable skills. To qualify as a full-time program, classes had to be held year-round, for a minimum of 4 hours a day and 5 days a week. The Corrections Department had until July 1, 1981 to comply.

Since then, the New Mexico State Corrections Department has provided several vocational programs to inmates at four correctional facilities. The training was contracted through various community colleges and universities in New Mexico; for this reason, programs were not uniform, nor did they consistently offer the opportunity for transfer of credit. When inmates transferred from one institution to another (this occurred frequently due to reclassification procedures) they were often unable to transfer previous credits or to continue in their training programs.

In 1985, the New Mexico Corrections Department responded to the problems of transferability and program consistency by requesting proposals from New Mexico post-secondary institutions for the proviison of fourteen vocational programs, to be administered by a single college or university. Santa Fe Community College (SFCC), a new college founded in 1983, was the only one to respond. SFCC proposed to provide vocational programs in Electronics, Computer Science, Drafting, Secretarial Technology, and Auto Body at the Penitentiary of New Mexico (PNM) in Santa Fe; programs in Auto Mechanics, Heating, Ventilation and Air Conditioning, Computer Science (with business and math/science options), Drafting and Electronics at the Southern New Mexico Correctional Facility (SNMCF) in Las Cruces; programs in Secretarial Tech-

nology and Computer Science at the Western New Mexico Correctional Facility (for women) in Grants; and Auto Mechanics at the Central New Mexico Correctional Facility (CNMCF) in Los Lunas.

The proposal was accepted, and a contract for one year was negotiated. The fourteen vocational programs are administered by the SFCC Director of Corrections Education. The director serves as a liaison between the College and the Corrections Department, and is responsible for hiring and supervising instructors, developing curricula, and insuring quality control for the vocational programs. In addition, the director serves as a communications link between the College and its instructors and is responsible for monitoring admissions, registrations and grade reporting. The director makes frequent trips to the facilities to monitor the programs, but assistance in supervision is provided by on-site education directors employed by the Corrections Department.

Control of the programs is facilitated by steady communication and cooperation between the director of the program and the Corrections education directors. Vocational instructors are employees of SFCC and are subject to the college's policies but are supervised by Corrections Department education directors on a day-to-day basis. The instructors are carefully screened and thoroughly oriented to the requirements of SFCC and of the Corrections Department.

SFCC designed all the programs as Certificate and/or Associate of Applied Science degrees. In order for SFCC to grant certificates and/or degrees, and to deliver advanced vocational coursework, it is necessary for students to take some developmental studies and general studies courses. When possible, Santa Fe Community College offers those needed courses utilizing SFCC staff and/or Corrections Department staff.

Current SFCC curriculum and course descriptions are used for all standard SFCC programs. Only three programs are new to SFCC; those are Heating, Ventilation and Air Conditioning, Auto Mechanics and Auto Body. In those cases, new curriculum and course descriptions have been developed in consultation with experts in the fields and with instructors. Curriculum for the same program offered at different correctional facilities is standardized, allowing students who move from one institution to another institution with the same program to continue their studies.

In order to minimize interruption of training for transferred inmates, the programs were also planned on an open entry/open exit format. This allows students to enroll in and withdraw from classes at any time. This system is based on curricula which is taught in individually-paced competency modules. Modularized curriculum had been used by SFCC for several semesters, and it had worked well in Accounting, Math and some remedial English courses. The competency modules have designated skills in which each student must demonstrate proficiency at a satisfactory level before moving on to the next module. After completing all the competency modules in a course, students are assigned a grade based on their mastery of the skills.

In most cases, the courses offered on campus were purchased, pre-organized packages. In order to modularize 14 vocational programs, some of which were new to the college, consultants were hired to train instructors in the creation of vocational modules, or self-instructional packages. The consultants began by training instructors in Criterion Referenced Instruction (CRI) a training system developed by Dr. Robert Mager. Mager Associates, Inc. assists organizations with instructional design, development and implementation. The CRI training program is often used by industry, but has been successfully adapted for use in SFCC's vocational programs.

Criterion-Referenced Instruction is a training system designed to help instructors learn how to identify goals, tasks and tests for students that will prepare them to perform at the desired level. Instructors also learn to analyze their audience and evaluate instructional materials. After successful completion of CRI, instructors go on to create course maps and modules. This portion of the training is called Instructional Module Development, or IMD. To prepare the course map, instructors analyze the skills of a competent performer when working on the job and then group similar skills together. Each group of similar skills becomes a module, and the groups of skills are then analyzed for their dependence on each other. Some skills must be mastered before other skills can be learned. A flow chart is created, showing the relationships among the skill groups or modules.

Then the instructors begin actual module development. First, an objective for each module is stated; objectives include the expected performance level of the student, the conditions under which the performance will be measured, and the specific criteria against which the student will be measured. After the course map is created and all objectives are identified, the instructors develop the criterion test for each module. Then the actual module is drafted, incorporating information, resources and activities to prepare the student to reach the objectives. Draft modules are tested and revised until they can be proven to teach what they are supposed to teach. Instructors are asked to videotape their module tryouts with students, so that the consultants can see how the module actually works in the classroom. After only a few months of training, instructors were able to write short modules, or self-instructional packages, which enabled students to perform tasks such as operating a computer, creating an electronic diagram, or trouble-shooting heating systems or automobiles.

Instructors were trained in CRI and IMD by the consultants over a period of several months; the training is relatively inexpensive because it is designed as a self-instructional system. CRI/IMD training actually serves as a model of what it teaches, since instructors basically teach themselves through a series of pre-organized tasks, references and tests. The consultants acted only as guides and evaluators rather than as lecturers. After an initial session in which they presented the basic goals of the course, they provided materials to the instructors which enabled them to move through the course on their own, and at their own pace. This format proved to be efficient as well as cost-effective, since the program itself was new and instructors hired late in the session had to be trained. As new instructors were hired, they were provided with the CRI/IMD materials for the training. Consultants made frequent visits to each facility to evaluate the work done by all instructors, and reported progress to the SFCC director.

SFCC has traditionally and successfully hired technical experts, or practitioners, to teach vocational courses. This results in a need to train the practitioners to teach. The CRI/IMD training fulfilled that need. SFCC gave six hours of college credit to instructors who completed the entire training program. The courses were categorized under Educational Foundations, and are appropriate for certification requirements. Some instructors were able to apply these credits toward degrees in progress, and almost everyone agreed that the training had proven to be invaluable in their classrooms. Most instructors had taught in the correctional facilities even before their contracts with SFCC, and had experienced the frustrations of trying to tailor classroom instruction to inmates with a wide range of skill levels. Modularization helped them to do this, by providing them with a format that allowed students to begin at their own level and to proceed at their own pace.

Modularization was facilitated by the purchase of self-instructional packages for many programs, from computer-assisted instructional programs for Drafting, Accounting, Secretarial Technology and Computer Science to video cassetts and/or filmstrips in Auto Mechanics, Electronics and Heating, Ventilation and Air Conditioning. The purchase of these materials, as well as the CRI/IMD training, was made possible by a $48,000 grant from the New Mexico State Department of Education. Representative preview materials were ordered from a wide variety of vocational materials suppliers, and instructors rated them according to their appropriateness for the self-paced programs. A few companies volunteered to give demonstrations of their instructional materials, and these were found to be helpful in some cases. At the end of the preview workshop, instructors submitted their evaluation forms and recommendations for purchases. Instructors evaluated materials using analysis skills learned during the CRI/IMD training, and made well-informed recommendations. Materials and equipment recommended at the workshop have been purchased and are currently being implemented successfully. Each time instructors meet together, they are encouraged to share their new modules and other learning resources with other instructors in the same (or similar) programs.

Even though some programs were started several months late due to delays in hiring and purchasing, 193 students have enrolled in the vocational programs. At least 81 of those students have successfully completed 3 or more college credits, even though they are given a year to complete courses in a self-paced program. Students receive certificates of competency for each course completed successfully, and instructors report that this serves as both a reward and a motivator for further progress toward college certificate or degree plans.

In late February of 1985 a needs analysis survey was conducted; it was

designed to identify appropriate programs for the inmates in terms of interests and employment potential. The results indicated a high level of inmate interest in currently offered vocational programs, especially in the area of Computer Science. Interest was also expressed in Emergency Medical Technician training and Micrographics; the Corrections Department hopes to offer pilot programs in those areas in the coming year. A follow-up study is scheduled to be designed and implemented during 1986 and 1987; it will be funded by the New Mexico State Department of Education. The study is intended to analyze the benefits of vocational programs to inmates, based on the training's impact on employment and recidivism rates.

SFCC's first year as the provider of all vocational training for New Mexico inmates has proven to be a rewarding challenge. The current enrollment at the four facilities combined is 185, and our goal is to enroll 250 students year-round. SFCC has been given an opportunity to provide inmates with a quality educational program; it is expected to result in a viable rehabilitative effort.

A STUDY OF CORRECTIONAL EDUCATORS IN ADULT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS

By:
Darrel DeGraw, Ph.D.

Introduction

How can an individual convicted of a crime avoid future incarceration? Why is the tendency for repeat offenses disturbingly high? These questions have received considerable attention in recent years; after all, what good is rehabilitative incarceration which does not rehabilitate? Available research indicates a cycle of criminal behavior: social maladjustment is followed by criminal activity and subsequent imprisonment. Upon release, the cycle repeats itself. This repetition suggests that the root problem -- social maladjustment -- is not being effectively addressed within our correctional system.

Leo Black suggests that an ex-offender needs to set a different pattern of life for himself upon release if he is to break the cycle of crime and arrest and become an accepted member of society. The fact is, however, that lack of knowledge and limited skills, experience and opportunities in socially acceptable areas often pressure him back into delinquent patterns, which return him to correctional institutions which do not "correct."

What knowledge and skills are needed to allow a successful adjustment to coping with life situations in legally, socially acceptable ways? A most notable characteristic of adult prisoners is their lack of education and job skills. If education--academic, social, vocational--is an essential element of succeeding in today's world, then the increasing attention and concern aimed toward the field of correctional education is readily understandable. It is a field which has undergone a considerable metamorphosis since its inception over a century ago. Before describing the method and result of this present study, a brief review of that history is appropriate.

History of Correctional Education

The development of prison schools in America, as elsewhere, was slow. A school was established in the first recognized prison. Pennsylvania, Walnut

Street Jail, in 1798. Education in prison amounted to very little until around 1900, with wardens often rejecting any attempts at what they believed was "coddling" their prisoners. Clergy did much of the early teaching of prison inmates, and there is no indication that any other than basic Bible instruction was provided; even this was available only on a leisure-time basis. Eventually other courses were taught, including the "three R's," but the early teachers spent the majority of their time with routine prison rituals. "The teacher complained of only being able to give a lesson to each of his seventy scholars one in seven or eight days." (Burns)

A growing belief across the country that public education was the answer to crime evidenced itself through support for making increased educational opportunities available to inmates of prisons and newly-opened reformatories. Within the past decade and a half, experimentation and expanded programming have been initiated by various institutions, state penal agencies, and the U.S. Bureau of Prisons. The issue of correctional education and its role in effective criminal rehabilitation has recently received considerable attention, both in professional journals and the public media. This heightened concern for inmate education has been a response to what is recognized as an ". . . urgent need for better preparation of inmates for life in society after they are released from confinement." (Jacques)

Available research, including June Andrew's analysis of the relationship between reading ability and delinquency, supports the presence of educational disadvantage as a significant contributing factor in criminal behavior. As Arnold Edinborough stated, ". . . a man who cannot read or write cannot possibly exist in our documented, literate, credit card society." The specific kinds and levels of education needed, however, to render an individual societally functional are not so clearly defined. The mission is defined very

narrowly by some, such as the acquisition of General Education Development (GED) certification and entry-level job skills. Others define it more broadly, including ". . . not only academic and career education, but also instruction in skills which stimulate and facilitate involvement in social, economic, and cultural pursuits and the ability to seek entry into and take advantage of available opportunity systems." (McCollum)

Despite the many well-conceived programs implemented in correctional institutions over the past fifteen years, it appears that no more than four percent of inmates are substantially involved in education. The educational programs in the adult correctional institutions are as varied as the institutions themselves. Not one institution, however, has been able to make a valid claim as to its success in terms of the total number of inmates enrolled in its program, and how many are able or willing to utilize the learned or improved skills after release. Many inmates, according to Glaser, deplore the quality of available teachers and equipment. He further stated that ". . . all too frequently, planning is not completed, adequate resources are not allocated, and prison administrators are largely indifferent to the place of education within the institution." There is a prevailing feeling among researchers that considerably more needs to be known about the madkup and implementation of these programs before significant improvement or evaluation can occur.

Correctional Educator Training

The most sophisticated instructional program cannot be any better than those who implement it. This includes administrators and, especially, those directly involved with the inmates--the teachers. There have been questions concerning the quality and appropriateness of training available at teacher education institutions for individuals planning to enter the field of correctional education. John Marsh pictures correctional educators as "forgotten"

professionals, pointing out, ". . . the lack of knowledge by teacher training institutions regarding correctional education."

It has also been pointed out that working conditions for correctional staff are not always ideal. This view is borne out by Hagerty's review of several studies made in the area of correctional educator training. His conclusions:

1. There is a shortage of funding, programming, and appropriately-trained personnel;
2. 93% of academic teachers surveyed were certified;
3. Correctional educators could become liable for damages resulting from a civil suit; and
4. A disparity exists in pay and length of working year between correctional educators and public school teachers.

It was the intent of this study to determine who is presently teaching within state adult correctional institutions, ascertain their qualifications, and to solicit their suggestions regarding their field of work.

Description of Basic Data Gathered

A total of 668 survey instruments (Annex A) was mailed out to educators in adult correctional institutions on a random basis. A total of 331 surveys, representing 35 states, was returned (a 49.5% return rate). Responses were grouped according to a number of different criteria:

1. Region

Northeast	-	11.5%
South	-	28.4%
Midwest	-	36.6%
West	-	23.9%

2. Size of Institution

This varied from less than 250 to over 2,000 with the median range

being 501 to 1,000 (32.6%). Twenty-nine of the 331 (8.8%) did not respond to the question.

3. Security Classification of Institution

The most frequent response (34.7%) was a mixed-level institution, with medium-security a close second (32.8%). The smallest percentage of respondents (7.6%) were in minimum security institutions.

4. Position Title

Educators were referred to as teachers or instructors in 51% of the responses.

5. Sex

71% of the respondents were male. 29% were female.

6. Education Level

An impressive proportion of educators (48%) had achieved a Master's degree, with only 6.3% possessing no baccalaureate degree. One respondent (.4%) did not specify.

7. Major Field

The majority of respondents (65.9%) had education degrees. Nine (2.7%) did not answer the question.

8. Experience (Correctional or Teaching)

71.3% of the respondents indicated having had prior teaching experience, most (54.3%) between one and ten years. 70.3% had been teaching in a correctional setting for between one and ten years, while only 16.7% had had any non-educational experience in a correctional environment. As regards to their present position, 72.2% have held it for one to ten years. 90.9% were appropriately certified, and 81.6% stated that they had a job description. 35% are supervised by a Program Director/Director of Education, and 29.6% by a principal.

Over half (53%) had been required to pass a probation period of six to twelve months.

Based upon these responses, the composite "average" correctional educator profiled by this data would be a male teacher, with state certification and a Master's degree in education. Prior to entering his present position at a mixed-security correctional institution with 500 to 1,000 inmates in the Midwest, a job he has held for some five years, he taught for approximately five years in a non-correctional setting. He is supervised by a Program Director or Director of Education, and he passed a probationary period of six months.

What are these educators teaching? Course offerings fell into six groups:

ABE/Basic Reading 8.5%

GED Preparation 12.7%

Specific subjects (math, English) 42.0%

All courses 21.4%

Other (non-academic). 5.4%

No response 10.0%

Nearly all (98.2%) respondents indicated that GED certification programs were available at their facility, 90% offered Adult Basic Education (ABE/Basic Reading), 88.9% had vocational education, 68.9% offered community college programs. Aside the "traditional" classroom situation, 52.3% indicated that educational opportunities were available through correspondence study, and another 39.3% utilized self-directed study programs. A small majority of educators (53.5%) responded that they had no role in selecting their students, although three-quarters of that number would like to have input into the process. Of those educators who do participate in student selection, over half had only the right to accept or reject students, rather than a more active role in student selection.

How contented are these educators with their present environment? While a total of 59.5% had considered leaving their present position, only 47.7% had taken any serious steps in that direction (actively seeking or inquiring about another job). In fact, 32.9% expected to be in the same position five years hence. Twenty percent on the other hand planned to be out of the correctional environment altogether. Other responses indicated plans to be in higher education positions (18.1%), transfer into non-educational corrections work (8.3%), pursuit of further education (2.7%), and other responses (16.3%). The most common "other" responses included uncertainty of future plans and retirement. The survey instrument did not ask respondents to specify reasons for job dissatisfaction.

The last section of the survey asked respondents to discuss in greater depth their perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of their formal preparation to become correctional educators, and suggestions for improving such preparation. They were also asked to describe ways in which the educational environment at correctional institutions could be improved, as well as ways for enhancing recruitment and retention of qualified correctional educators. The variety and number of these responses are beyond the scope of this paper to address; they are, however, serving as the basis for further study and analysis.

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

The relatively good percentage of responses point to correctional educators as a conscientious group that is genuinely interested in improving their unique area of education. The data gathered also indicates that this is a well-qualified group in terms of education and experience. The general attitude of many respondents toward the survey can be summed up in the following comment: "It's about time someone is showing some interest in correctional

education. But I'm afraid it won't do any good." The last statement reflects the fairly high number of correctional educators expressing intentions to leave the field, possibly due to burnout or job dissatisfaction, or both.

What needs to be done now? If education is to be available, effective component of the correctional rehabilitative system it is vitally important to develop strategies for recruitment and retention of high quality, motivated educators. This development will require:

1. Definition of job skills and knowledges;
2. Determination of what attracts people to this type of educational environment and challenge;
3. Ensuring appropriate training and a job information network for these motivated individuals; and
4. Investigation of potential retention incentives -- higher salary scales, increased job security, greater responsibility for program direction and student selection.

The next step in this direction should be a study to determine what motivational factors are most crucial to correctional educators. Operating on the hypothesis that there are reasons other than financial which attract qualified people to the field of correctional education--and keep them there--it would logically follow that identification of those motivational factors could significantly aid in any serious attempts to improve recruitment and retention.

Over 95% of the inmates at correctional institutions are eventually released. Improved education and training for those inmates will better prepare them to function in socially, legally acceptable ways upon their release. These improved educational programs, however, are only possible if high-quality educational personnel can be attracted to, and retained by, the adult correctional institutions.

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SUCCESS SECRETS

FOR

TEACHING

BUSINESS COMPUTER COURSES

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ABSTRACT

This paper reveals classroom teaching techniques used since October 1984 for college business computer courses at Southern New Mexico Correctional Facility, Las Cruces. The teaching style is adapted from Malcolm Knowles 1980 book The Modern Practice of Adult Education: From Pedagogy to Andragogy.

The paper also includes a cost analysis.

Success Secrets For Teaching Business Computer Courses

Twelve inmates of Southern New Mexico Correctional Facility, Las Cruces, concentrate on their computer screens. Some shake their head in puzzlement and reach for the dBase III software manual. Others seek counsel from fellow students. They speak in hushed tones usually reserved for church or library. Several tap the keyboard in experimentation, the click of the keys clearly audible.

A student looks up and waves to the instructor's aide. The student points to the screen. The aide hunches over for a better look, and then pulls up a chair for an extended response.

The inmates are discovering the intricacies of computerized data base management in a self-paced laboratory. They sit before 12 IBM Personal Computers arranged in a circle. They use the middle of the classroom for consultations and technical discussions. The instructor goes where he is needed, responding to individual questions.

Two students, who worked as a team, complete a project. They watch the printer burst out the results, confidence lighting their faces. They each place their printout on the instructor's desk and eagerly ask a fellow student about the next assignment.

Inmates who complete this eight week course receive three hours college credit from Santa Fe Community College, even as they serve time in this medium security prison. Southern New Mexico Correctional Facility is at capacity with 480 inmates. During most of 1985, between 53-58% of the prison population was enrolled in various education programs.

For the business computer courses specifically, statistics reveal a persistent high enrollment and minimal absences since the curriculum became available to the inmates October 1984.

This paper focuses on classroom techniques which are believed to contribute to the high enrollment and minimal absences in the six vocational business computer courses at Southern New Mexico Correctional Facility.

SIX BUSINESS COMPUTER COURSES

The methods described apply to these courses:

BCIS 131	Microcomputers In Business I	(DOS, MultiMate, Lotus)
BCIS 131	Microcomputers in Business II	(dBase III programming)
ENG 116	Technical Writing	(MultiMate)
BSA 112	Business Math	(Lotus & Simple Math)
ACC 121	Principles of Accounting I	(Accounting Fundamentals)
ACC 122	Principles of Accounting II	(Cost Accounting)

MODULAR PROJECTS

Course materials are organized into modular projects using a self-paced laboratory environment. The three-hour daily lab focuses on learning by doing.

Hands-on activity predominates. Students experiment, using the textbook, computer manual and their own intuition. When that is not enough, students share and swap ideas and solutions.

The projects are short and self-contaired, about three or four weekly. With frequent short assignments, students can experience success almost daily in completing an assignment. Class activity moves at such a fast pace that students just cannot afford to miss one day. The penalty for missing a class period becomes self-imposed, maximizing daily attendance.

For the accounting courses, the instructor assigns problems at the end of each chapter for homework, allowing students to use the computers for accounting simulations. In teaching dBase III programming, the instructor designs

his own curriculum and projects. For example, students created a dBase III program to compute "good time" earned, forfeited and release date.

A text or two is used for every course. Rank beginners use several read-and-do books to learn the fundamentals of the most popular software packages. Read-and-do activities supplement computerized tutorials, which offer even more guided learning.

Disk tutorials for DOS, MultiMate, Lotus, dBase III are useful to a point. Students zip through the lessons with eagerness. Yet, they seem to retain few details. So, to reinforce their learning, the instructor created his own fill-in-the-blank exercises, which are keyed to paragraphs right off the computer screen. Students use these handouts for evening study and class discussion. The result: Students gain a quick grasp of many technical details. Students grapple with the material at their own pace, minimizing the need for class discussion.

TEACHING STYLE

An open, personal and fluid teaching style befits a self-paced lab. The instructor is always on the move, performing as a consultant. Rarely, if ever, does the instructor sit behind a desk. By arranging the classroom in a circle, the traditional distinction between instructor and student disappears. No rows or columns of students. No head of the class.

The instructor addresses students by surname. e.g., Mr. Chavez. This creates a feeling of significance for the student and introduces a business quality otherwise missing when students are addressed by first name. The use of surnames creates a sense of neutrality in discussions between instructor and student when evaluating work or reviewing grades.

The instructor sandwiches his 30-minute lecture in the middle of the lab. Students clearly prefer this. The result is self-motivation. When class

begins, students immediately and eagerly turn on the computer and resume the project left over from yesterday.

Class lectures are frequently derived from student discoveries or misunderstandings uncovered that day. Since lectures are kept to a minimum, students discover that the responsibility of learning is shifted from instructor to student.

Students tend to team together in pairs, reinforcing cooperation as an employment skill. The fast learners link together. The slow learners tend to cluster together. Yet, the fast learners enjoy sharing their expertise. When a slow learner appears immobilized, the instructor will ask the student to seek help from another who already has mastered the material. So students discover that their colleagues are just as legitimate a source of technical information as the instructor.

Therefore, the instructor becomes a facilitator for learning, rather than the only source of knowledge. When this philosophy imbues the classroom, the instructor can work intensely with one student knowing that all the other students are using each other as resources to resolve questions as they arise. Clearly, this learning approach requires the instructor not to be intimidated when students are providing each other with technical information.

Educational theorist Malcolm Knowles clarifies this teaching approach in his 1980 book, The Modern Practice of Adult Education: From Pedagogy to Andragogy, Follett Publishing Co.

Chapters Four and Eleven are particularly pertinent here. The teaching tools used in a pedagogy style are lecture, readings, AV presentations. Contrast that to the teaching tools used in an andragogy style: laboratory experiences, simulations, small group discussion, role-playing.

Most students in the business courses at Southern relish the freedom of

self-reliance and self-exploration, frequently completing assignments ahead of schedule. Students commonly seek additional computer time outside of their regular class periods to review a troublesome skill or to learn the next skill.

Students who remain teacher-dependent for their learning find themselves falling behind their colleagues. Peer pressure and their own pride soon boost them out of their lethargy. The instructor further stimulates self-reliant behavior by his policy that outside computer time is earned through class attendance. This policy clearly penalizes those students whose attendance behavior is erratic.

Due to security requirements, the computer lab is not open at night or weekends.

INSTRUCTOR'S AIDE

Contributing to the success of the computer lab at Southern is an inmate who works as an instructor's aide. This aide is a "quick study" on software packages and can easily untangle a student from disaster. The aide, in fact, has achieved a knowledge and facility of the software packages as to equal the instructor. Rather than feeling threatened, the instructor uses this outstanding talent by encouraging the aide to work with students. The aide makes frequent suggestions about class projects he envisions.

On another level, the aide provides a liaison between instructor and student. Since the aide is an inmate, the aide can provide important feedback to the instructor about the feelings and attitudes of individual students. The aide can also provide after-hours teaching assistance, if he is so inclined. The aide finds his prison status elevated by assuming such a significant role in the classroom. The aide volunteers to help students after class, a natural result of the high esteem he reaps by doing so.

Educators who wish to achieve solid and continuing success in their vocational courses must incorporate into their teaching strategy an inmate as instructor's aide. The vital importance of this classroom dynamic cannot be over-emphasized. Inmate acceptance of the course is heightened when the aide actively influences curriculum and assists in instruction. Further, an instructor multiplies his effective influence when a knowledgeable aid provides accurate technical answers during lab.

This observation was verified by Dr. Jerald Reece, professor, Curriculum and Instruction, New Mexico State University. Dr. Reece began monitoring the business computer courses in September 1985 when Mr. Hershberger entered the internship phase required for state vocational teacher certification.

"Mr. Hershberger makes appropriate use of his knowledgeable aide by encouraging the aide to answer technical software questions from students," said Dr. Reece in a formal evaluation of the course. "This allows Mr. Hershberger as instructor to devote time to students individually in conference even as lab continues around him.

"Mr. Hershberger encourages peer teaching. His approach is consonant with the educational theory of Malcolm Knowles. My observations indicate significant self-paced learning occurs in his classroom," said Dr. Reece.

HOMEWORK

Require lots of homework. The evening activity keeps students committed and motivated to the course. Homework also places a structure on the course. Daytime lab is so fluid that the student can be mesmerized into believing that anything goes and he has lots of time to do it.

One stock assignment which compels the student to read the assigned chapter is: Bring in three solid questions and detailed answers derived from the text. Write the questions as if you are the instructor. What would you want

another student to know?

WRITE, WRITE, WRITE

Writing commits the learner. Writing focuses ideas to the point of a pen. Writing Across The Curriculum is reasserting itself across college campuses.

Inmates at Southern who enroll in business computer courses write a weekly Executive Summary, using business memo style. The document is strictly limited to one page. The Executive Summary is like a week in review with lots of personal opinion and attitudes. More than a Learning Log (Appendix B1) which lists events of the week, the Executive Summary compels the student to deal with his own learning process (Appendix B2). Or as educational philosopher Benjamin Bloom might say, the assignment moves the student into the evaluation stage which is the highest level of cognitive thinking.

But writing is a process. So, on Mondays, the students bring copies of their writing and swap with fellow students. Overnight they make written suggestions based on a checklist (Appendix B5). Tuesdays, papers are returned to their owners. Wednesdays, students turn in a revised product to the instructor. Generally, students use a MultiMate word processor to type in their handwritten work. Revision becomes a computer game.

The Executive Summary is a weekly exercise for the introduction class but a biweekly activity for all other business courses. Why change the frequency? The structured weekend writing helps inmates return to the academic world. Once they make it through the intro course, the homework assignments are more oriented to the subject matter itself.

A Get To Know You writing exercise is often used the first day of class (Appendix B6). It serves the purpose of beginning the writing activities and providing the instructor a way to personalize his teaching.

Free writing is another useful technique. Discuss a topic of current con-

cern with your students. Then give them three minutes to write on it. Discuss the writing. Then require the students to further develop the idea overnight.

EVALUATION

Instructors can use the Executive Summary as an ongoing evaluation tool. When students get comfortable with the medium, students readily reveal their feelings and learning discomforts. The Executive Summary fosters a written dialogue between student and instructor. This dialogue is highly potent feedback for both. (Student samples in Appendix B3, B4).

Students are reminded every day that their performance is subject to evaluation. In a corner of the blackboard and never erased is a Stanine Scale:

9	Mastery
8	Quality
7	Solid
6	Sufficient
5	Marginal
4	Weak
3	Poor
2	Broke
1	Hungry

The scale works best for writing assignments and other projects where evaluation is subjective.

At intervals determined by instructor intuition, students complete a Self-Evaluation form (Appendix B7). The instrument revealed a "semester burnout" syndrome prior to the class break Christmas 1985. One student frankly wrote that Christmastime made him blue and so he found it difficult to concentrate on his studies. Indeed, his classroom performance had diminished. So getting his frank self-evaluation helped the instructor to be sensitive to the unseen dynamics in a prison.

Students have ready access to their academic performance through an electronic gradebook which is usually on-line during class. The instructor has designed the gradebook using dBase III or Lotus 1-2-3. The gradebook is an open affair, so every student knows his class standing. A student will often wait by the electronic gradebook as the instructor types in the latest grade or lab performance. Students delight in the instantaneous update of their grade. More significantly, the electronic gradebook appears to heighten student motivation. Students generally wish to excel.

SOFTWARE

During their college work, inmates will use these software packages: MultiMate word processor, Lotus 1-2-3 financial spreadsheet, dBase III data base management, Shoebox Accountant, Typing Tutor and MasterType. Inmates also learn computer theory and computer procedures.

Examine Appendix A4 and A5 for a setup costs and operation costs involved in the business computer curricula.

The inventory control system is effective and simple to administer. Each computer is numbered 1 to 12. Each software package is also numbered. A student is assigned a computer. He checks out daily the software which corresponds to his computer. Shut-down procedure requires all software to be in the inventory closet before quarters call. Only two persons have access to the inventory closet: Instructor and his aide.

Southern has lost only one software package to theft during the first 17 months of classroom operation.

ENROLLMENT LIMITS

Inmates meet daily for three hours. Enrollment is limited to 12 inmates per class, allowing one computer per person. The introduction course is offered continuously from 1-4 p.m. The course is used as a feeder course to

boost enrollment for the morning intermediate courses (Appendix B9).

Maximum enrollment at any one time is 24 students--12 in the morning and 12 in the afternoon for three hours daily (Appendix A2). Average enrollment is 14 total. For the intermediate courses, enrollment averages eight students while high attrition reduces enrollment in the introduction course to six students (Appendix B8).

Attrition in the Introduction course is affected by several factors. Many inmates hope to learn the use of computers without the rigors of academic curriculum. These inmates drop within the first 10 days. Others find the computer a challenge, yet don't have the tenacity or skills to complete an eight-week course. Of those who finish, many have satisfied their curiosity and care not to pursue the other courses.

For the intermediate series, attrition occurs when inmates are transferred within the prison system or when a student feels overwhelmed by the complexity of the curriculum, such as accounting or dBase III programming.

ADMISSIONS POLICY

By state law, a high school diploma or GED is not required prior to admission into a community college. Therefore, education counselors at Southern New Mexico Correctional Facility test and screen inmates for prerequisite skills in reading, writing and math by using these instruments: Test of Adult Basic Educationa (TABE), Beta IQ, Wide Range Opinion Interest Test (WROIT), Nelson Denny Reading Test.

Additionally, counselors do give potential students a math and reading placement test used by Santa Fe Community College on its campus. If the student places below the cutoff score, the student is enrolled in a mandatory supplemental Math 100 or English 100 course.

Nevertheless, the instructor spends lots of time teaching fundamentals,

such as figuring percentages and writing in complete sentences.

Admission into the introduction course is continuous. Prison and college officials are experimenting with an open, rolling admissions policy. During the Fall 1985 and Spring 1986 series, the instructor with the encouragement of college and prison officials admitted inmates into the introduction course whenever a potential student presented himself. The advantage for the institutions is to boost sagging enrollment. The advantage to the inmate is that he does not have to wait weeks to enter the classroom.

The open entry/exit concept for the Introduction course appears to accomplish its goal of keeping enrollment high--at the cost of some team spirit and group camaraderie. Nonetheless, the instructor believes that the Intro course is appropriate for open entry/exit, since students use the course as a "window" on the other business computer courses.

However, the instructor must cope with high anxiety of incoming students who perceive that they are behind the others and must catch up. The new students feel lost. Terminology and computer etiquette baffle and frighten the rank beginner. A sense of fear and failure begin to dog the new student.

Therefore, this open entry/exit admissions policy should be instituted only when the instructor has course materials clearly modularized. The instructor actively encourages the experienced students to work with the incoming students. This peer teaching works well.

Yet, the instructor encounters difficulty in synchronizing the upward movement of students into the intermediate courses when students are at various stages within the curriculum.

The academic subject matter of the other business computer courses does not lend itself to open entry/exit admissions. Here admissions is restricted to entry during the first week of the course. The result is that some stu-

dents, who complete the Intro course while an Intermediate course is in progress, may have to sit out of the curriculum for several weeks.

Both Southern New Mexico Correctional Facility and Santa Fe Community College are seeking ways to readily absorb new students at all times. The experience of the instructor suggests that the Intro course is the one and only appropriate curriculum for open entry/exit. For the other five business courses, the instructor believes that the integrity of the classroom is ensured only when students are admitted at specified intervals. Students are admitted to the Intermediate series every eight weeks and during the first week of the session. Under this system, an inmate would wait a maximum of seven weeks to enter the curriculum. From the instructor's point of view, the small inconvenience to the inmates is a reasonable tradeoff to ensure the integrity of the college classroom.

CERTIFICATE AND ASSOCIATE DEGREES

New Mexico Corrections Department contracts on an annual basis with area community colleges for vocational education services. The business computer courses were put into place October 1984 by Dona Ana Branch Community College, Las Cruces. The contract expired June 30, 1985.

The Corrections Department chose Santa Fe Community College to continue the program because Corrections wanted one community college which would provide vocational services to all prison facilities throughout New Mexico. The community college simply extended its existing campus curriculum into the four prisons throughout the state.

Inmates who complete 36 hours of accounting, technical writing, business math and computer labs earn a college certificate for Computers In Small Business (Appendix B10).

These courses can be applied to an Associate's Degree for Computer

Science--Business, granted by Santa Fe Community College (Appendix B11).

Santa Fe Community College also provides inmates at Southern five other vocational programs: Computer Programming, Electronics, Drafting, Auto Mechanics, and Heating/Air Conditioning/Ventilation.

CONCLUSION

Some inmates dream of self-employment. Their dream evokes visions of riches and righteous independence. So they enter the computer classroom with rigid expectations of quickly gaining job skills in business management, hoping to sidestep traditional academia. Learning to use a computer will make them competent and profitable businessmen, they figure.

Other inmates are driven to enter the computer classroom by curiousity. These men are enticed by the mystic, mystery and magic surrounding computers.

All are universally surprised at the sudden volume of homework, the never-ending writing activities and the exacting precision of computer work. Those who choose to stay in the classroom soon discover their own academic prowess. Most leave the program with a business computer skill and a glow of success and achievement.

APPENDIX A

COST OVERVIEW

COST ANALYSIS

BUSINESS COMPUTER COURSES

SOUTHERN NEW MEXICO CORRECTIONAL FACILITY

TOTAL ANNUAL OPERATIONS COST	$56,703
ANNUAL COSTS:	
PER COURSE	$9,451
PER OFFERING	$4,725
PER WORK STATION	$197
PER ENROLLED STUDENT	$457
PER STUDENT COMPLETING A COURSE	$692

Explanations:

PER COURSE. Total Annual Operations Cost divided by the six curricula:

ACCT 121	Principles of Accounting I
ACCT 121	Principles of Accounting II
BSA 112	Business Math
BCIS 131	Microcomputers in Business I
BCIS 132	Microcomputers in Business II
ENG 116	Technical Writing

PER OFFERING. Total Annual Operations Cost divided by 12, the number of times courses are offered during the year.

PER WORK STATION. Total Annual Operations Cost divided by 288, the number of work stations available. Derived by 12 computers X 2 classes daily X 12 offerings. Thus, 288 represents capacity seating.

PER ENROLLED STUDENT. Total Annual Operations Cost divided by 124 students who actually enrolled between October 1984 and October 1985.

PER STUDENT COMPLETING A COURSE. Total Annual Operations Cost divided by 82 students who earned college credit for completing a course between October 1984 and October 1985.

COMPUTER USAGE

BUSINESS COMPUTER COURSES

SOUTHERN NEW MEXICO CORRECTIONAL FACILITY

AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE:	
CAPACITY	24
DUPLICATED STUDENTS	22
UNDUPLICATED STUDENTS	14
CAPACITY USED--UNDUPLICATED	58%
IDLE COMPUTER TIME	8%
OVERALL USAGE RATE	92%

Explanations:

CAPACITY. Total seating available daily. 12 computers X 2 classes. Students use their three hour class time for extended lab activities.

DUPLICATED STUDENTS. Students frequently seek extra computer time, so are counted more than once a day.

UNDUPLICATED STUDENTS. Currently enrolled students counted once daily.

CAPACITY USED--UNDUPLICATED. Indicates the program can readily absorb more students. The unduplicated students divided by daily capacity (14/24).

IDLE COMPUTER TIME. The daily frequency of an unused computer.

OVERALL USAGE RATE. The frequency of computer use. The duplicated students divided by daily capacity (22/24). Includes use of a computer for the electronic gradebook.

PLEASE NOTE: Actual enrollment numbers (detailed elsewhere) understate by 15% the precise number of students who participate in the curricula. The discrepancy occurs because some students attend for a few days and never return. Their stay is so brief as not to be counted in enrollment statistics. Yet these students do use the computers during their attendance.

CLASS ENROLLMENT

BUSINESS COMPUTER COURSES

SOUTHERN NEW MEXICO CORRECTIONAL FACILITY

	*Enroll	Finish	Retention Rate
OCT 84			
Introduction	11	2	18%
Introduction	11	9	82%
JAN 85			
Introduction	12	8	67%
Accounting 121	6	3	50%
MAR 85			
Introduction	15	8	53%
Word Processing	10	6	60%
MAY 85			
Introduction	12	10	83%
Accounting	8	7	88%
AUG 85			
Introduction	8	4	50%
Business Math (Lotus)	12	10	83%
OCT 85			
Introduction	9	6	67%
dBase III	10	9	90%
FEB 86			
Introduction	7	6	86%
Accounting 121	12	8	67%
Overall	143	96	67%

*Class size limited to 12 students, allowing one computer per student.

OPERATIONS COST

BUSINESS COMPUTER COURSES
SOUTHERN NEW MEXICO CORRECTIONAL FACILITY

ITEM	ANNUAL COSTS	TOTALS $	TOTALS %
Equipment & Materials:			
12 IBM Personal Computers & 6 Printers	6,702		
Business Software	3,660		
Textbooks	925		
Computerized Tutorials	397		
Furniture	396		
Supplies--Disks, Ribbons, Paper	905		
Repair	700		
EQUIPMENT & MATERIALS SUBTOTAL		$13,686	24%
INSTRUCTOR SALARY		$30,602	54%
ADMINISTRATIVE OVERHEAD (Director, 2 Counselors, 1 Diagnostician, Secretary, 3 Security Officers)		$12,415	22%
TOTAL ANNUAL OPERATIONS COST		$56,703	100%

Assumptions:

EQUIPMENT & SUPPLIES. The only annual cash expenditures are for supplies and repair as needed, perhaps some new textbooks. All other items represent depreciation expenses based on estimated useful life: Equipment, Software, Furniture--Five years; Textbooks--Three years.

INSTRUCTOR SALARY. Item includes 19% employer-paid costs.

ADMINISTRATIVE OVERHEAD. Personnel costs only divided by 17 classrooms. Items not included, among others, are: Utilities, Maintenance, Inmate Salaries, Building Depreciation.

TOTAL ANNUAL OPERATIONS COST. Delivers 12 college business computer courses by rotating six offerings in nine week cycles.

SET UP COSTS
BUSINESS COMPUTER COURSES
SOUTHERN NEW MEXICO CORRECTIONAL FACILITY

ITEM	QUANTITY	UNIT PRICE*	EXTENDED PRICE	TOTALS $	TOTALS %
Hardware:					
IBM Personal Computer 256K RAM 2 Disk Drives IBM Monochrome Monitor	12	2,552	30,624		
Printer: C. Itoh 8510	3	345	1,035		
Printer: IBM Dot Matrix	1	399	399		
Printer: Epson FX100	1	509	509		
Printer: Brother HR-25	1	945	945		
Subtotal Hardware				$33,512	56%
Business Software:					
PC-DOS 2.1	12	65	780		
MultiMate Word Processing	12	470	5,640		
Lotus 1-2-3 Spreadsheet	12	495	5,940		
dBase III Data Base	12	495	5,940		
Subtotal Business Software				$18,300	31%
Computerized Tutorials:					
Professor DOS	6	49	294		
Lotus 1-2-3	6	49	294		
dBase III	1	175	175		
Accounting Principles	7	59	413		
MasterType	12	50	600		
Typing Tutor	6	35	210		
Subtotal Computerized Tutorials				$1,986	3%
Textbooks:					
PC DOS	15	20	300		
1-2-3 Go	15	25	375		
Lotus Self-Taught	15	20	300		
dBase III Primer	15	20	300		
Using dBase III	15	20	300		
Contemporary News Writing	15	25	375		
Writing Power	15	12	180		
The Perfect Resume	15	10	150		
Principles of Accounting	15	33	495		
Subtotal Textbooks				$2,775	5%
Furniture (chairs, tables)				$1,981	3%
Supplies (Disks, Ribbons, Paper)				$905	2%
TOTAL				$59,459	100%

*Items Purchased 1984-1985.

APPENDIX B

LEARNING LOG

Instructor: Mr. Hershberger

Santa Fe Community College

PURPOSE:

Your Learning Log will be your best friend during this course.

Use your Log to summarize daily classroom events.

Include personal observations. Do the concepts and skills come to you with ease or difficulty? Why? What can you do to improve your performance?

What idea or event impressed you during the class? Why? Give details. Be specific.

Use these daily entries to write your weekly Executive Summary. (See handout on Executive Summary.)

STRUCTURE:

Use the back third of your notebook for your daily entries. You determine the length of each entry.

EVALUATION:

The instructor will skim through your Learning Logs at random during the course. Every log will be evaluated twice, maybe more, on the basis of Satisfactory (S) or Unsatisfactory (U):

1. Does the Learning Log contain daily entries?

2. Does the writing reflect thought and effort beyond class?

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Instructor: Mr. Hershberger

Santa Fe Community College

PURPOSE:

Summarize your own learning from last week.

What one new concept did you learn? Give details. Be specific.

What were the key words or ideas you learned last week? Why are these items so important?

Use your Executive Summary to express your feelings about the classwork. Is it fun? Is it frustrating? How? Why? Give details. Be specific.

Critique the week. How might the class be improved?

Use your Executive Summary to discover insights about new material. Compare and contrast current skills and concept with previous weeks. Do you see similarities or differences?

Where is this class going? What is the big picture?

Your daily entries in the Learning Log should be useful here.

STRUCTURE:

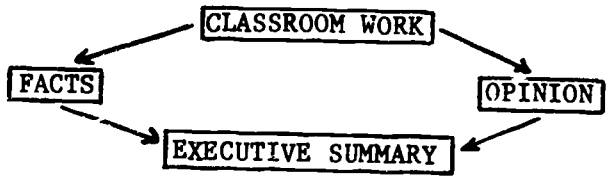
Use business memo format restricted to one page.

EVALUATION:

Your summary is due at the beginning of Monday's class. Distribute copies to two classmates. Tuesday, they will return your writing with suggestions. Rewrite. Wednesday, turn in a final draft to the instructor.

This multi-staged procedure illustrates that writing is, indeed, a process. First drafts are rarely, if ever, completed documents. Rewriting is as significant as writing.

The instructor uses a nine point scale for evaluation. Receiving a score of 9 indicates Mastery!



December 16, 1985

To: Steven Hershberger

From: Pete Martinez

Re: Finding Myself

My morale was boosted this week with the priviledge of reading and writing news stories involving tragedies that occur in everyday life.

My success was finding happiness in my work even, in revising each assignments attributed in increasing my experience with MultiMate word processing.

The techniques I use to assist me are really quite simple, when I type I usually talk to the computer physically and mentally. It responds with symbols or words which I find amusing especially when I make mistakes, adjusting the errors on my documents is a simple procedure by practicing, my instructor knows that I'm studying.

When he congratulated me last week my alter ego smiled from ear to ear, (his support is quite encouraging). I appreciate his patience by allowing me more time to finish some of my assignments.

Adapting to school work is very frustrating at times I feel like giving up, But I think of the times when I used to fill out job applications which weren't very impressive so by completing this course will give me more opportunity in looking for jobs in different fields other than what I'm use to.

The more I come to this class the better I feel, it's like starting all over again and finding myself.

TO: STEVEN HERSHBERGER

FROM: AL HARTLEY

DATE: 3-6-86

RE: EXECUTIVE SUMMARY #3

The third section of Accounting has been a continuous fight to stay alive. It seemed like I was in the trenches of WWI. The firing was heavy from journal entries and posting them to subsidary ledgers. Details that underly the balance of a controlling account are found in the subsidary accounts. These accounting intricacies forced me into a retreat.

When the firing stopped and I figured it was safe to move forward I was suddenly shelled by the voucher system, an accounting system used to control the incurrence and payment of obligations requiring the disbursement of cash. Before my outlook was dimming, at this point I was at the darkest level where things could only get better, or so I thought!

As things were beginning to look up for me and understanding was dawning on these mind twisters, I stuck my head up out of the trench to see what else the enemy had to throw at me. As I did so, I was hit full in the face by the formula for calculating interest. Not only did I have to calculate the interest for a notes receivable, but also a note that was discounted (sold) to a bank. Figuring that one out was a mind boggler in itself. While recovering from this tremendous blow, I was infected with the write off of bad debts, or technically, uncollectable accounts receivable.

This time consuming accounting class has me in a catch 22 situation. I don't know whether or not I'm coming or going anymore. My dreams have even been infected with columnar journal entries reaching out for me at night. I'm living a nightmare all ready, my dreams WERE my only escape.

PEER EVALUATION ON WRITING

COMPUTERS IN SMALL BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

Audience _____ Project Evaluated _____

Purpose _____ Project Author _____

	YES	NO	
I. CONTENT			
A.	_____	_____	Ideas clearly formed.
B.	_____	_____	Sufficient details to tell story.
C.	_____	_____	Writing is compelling/forceful.
II. ORGANIZATION			
A.	_____	_____	Opening captures attention.
B.	_____	_____	Key idea on top.
C.	_____	_____	Other ideas in diminishing order.
D.	_____	_____	Ideas are simply stated.
E.	_____	_____	Paragraphs have a controlling idea.
III. MECHANICS			
A.	_____	_____	Sentences are complete.
B.	_____	_____	Document follows format.
C.	_____	_____	Document is free of misspellings.
D.	_____	_____	Document is free of punctuation errors.

Student Evaluator _____

Date _____

KNOW YOUR AUDIENCE

Instructor: Mr. Steven Hershberger Santa Fe Community College

The answers to these questions reveal the interests of your students. With the insight you gain, adjust lab projects to your students.

Interests In Life:

What kind of business would you like to own? Why?
What part of the country would you locate the business? Why?
Explain your preference: Working with numbers, words or people?

Need Gratifiers:

What salary would you like to earn? Why? What would you do with the money?
What kind of movies/TV shows do you enjoy? Be specific.
What would you do if you could spend next weekend on the street?

Anticipated Attitudes:

Do you prefer working with a buddy or working alone?
Do you like to read and do or figure it out as you go?
Explain your choice: Working a crossword puzzle or singing along with your favorite tune?

Physical Characteristics of Work:

Explain your choice: Watching TV football and keeping score on your bets?

or

Working out in the gym?

or

Writing a letter to a friend?

or

Analyzing numbers to see who owes you the most?

Formal/Informal Training or Education:

What kinds of activities or jobs are you good at?
What business courses or experience do you have?
Do you type?

Santa Fe Community College

Instructor: Mr. Hershberger

Name _____

Course _____

Date _____

SELF EVALUATION

1. Describe your current level of proficiency. Use the 9 scale listed below. (Be honest, now!)

Imaginative	9
Slick	8
Quick	7
Comfortable	6
Fuzzy	5
Uneasy	4
Queasy	3
Lost	2
	1

2. List two problem areas for you in the course. What lies behind your difficulties?

3. What possible remedies would you propose to the items listed in Question Two?

WHY STUDENTS QUIT

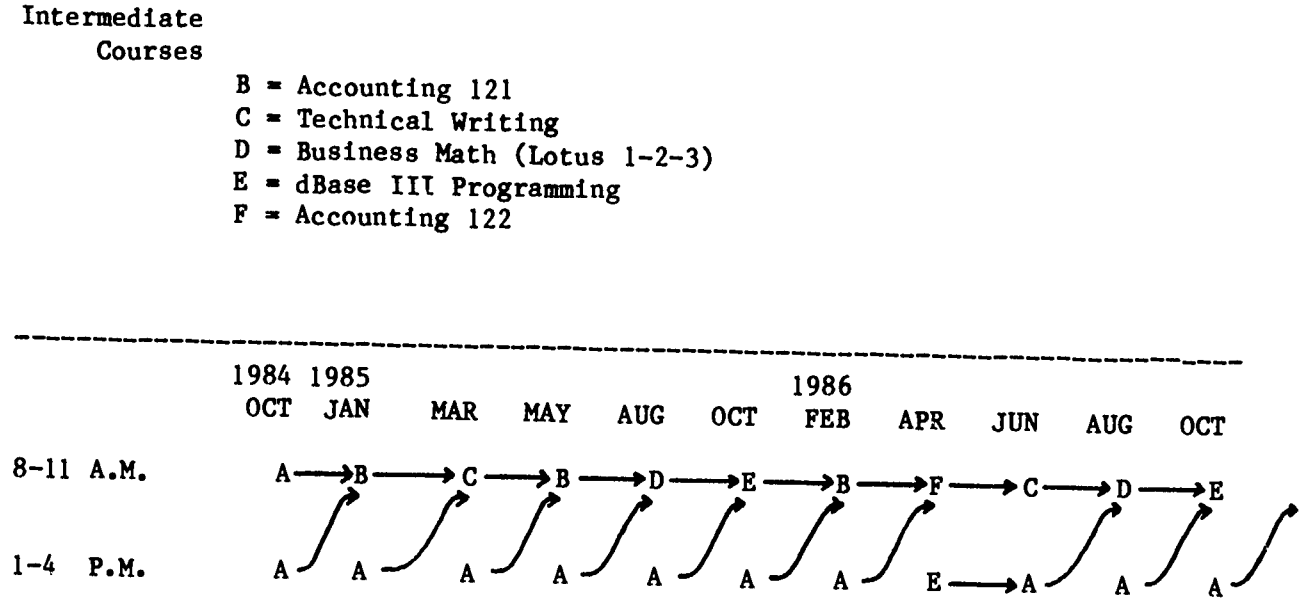
Total students enrolled during first six months:	40
Students withdrew for these reasons:	
Transferred to other facilities by prison officials	3
Finished serving sentence	1
Unable to handle math of Accounting	4
Lacked interest in subject matter	6
Disliked writing	1
Too restless to attend regularly	1
Decided homework load was too heavy	1
Quit to take paying job	1
	18
Loss of Students:	45%
Overall Student Retention For First Six Months:	55%

CYCLE OF CURRICULUM

A = Introduction: Computer Etiquette
Word Processing
Financial Analysis

Intermediate Courses

B = Accounting 121
C = Technical Writing
D = Business Math (Lotus 1-2-3)
E = dBase III Programming
F = Accounting 122



* The trick in making this scheme work is that all intermediate courses have only one prerequisite: The Introduction course.

Enrollment is perpetually replenished by continuously offering the Introduction course.

COMPUTERS IN SMALL BUSINESS

Certificate Program

Santa Fe Community College

This program combines courses in business, general studies, and microcomputers to provide competencies applicable to working in today's small business. Emphasis will be placed on small business computer software applications.

REQUIRED COURSES (34-36 hrs.)

ACC	121	Principles of Accounting I	3
ACC	122	Principles of Accounting II	3
BCIS	131L	Microcomputers In Business I	3
BCIS	132L	Microcomputers In Business II	3
BSA	121	Human Relations In Business	3
BSA	112	Business Math (3)	
OR			
BSA	260	Business Statistical Analysis (3)	3
CIS	111	Introduction to Computers	2
CIS	111L	Introduction to Computers Lab	1
ENG	111	Composition and Rhetoric	3
ENG	116	Technical Writing	3
MATH	130	Intermediate Algebra	3
SEC	111	Keyboarding (1)	
OR			
SEC	112	Beginning Typing (3)	1-3
		TOTAL HOURS REQUIRED	34-36

ASSOCIATE OF SCIENCE

Major in Computer Science

Santa Fe Community College

GENERAL STUDIES REQUIREMENTS (38 hrs.)	
Communications (Must include ENG 111, ENG 116, or ENG 112 and SPCH 111)	9
Humanities (Art, Foreign Language, Literature, Music or Philosophy-maximum 6 hrs. in any one area)	9
Behavioral/Social Sciences (Maximum 6 hrs. in any one area)	9
Mathematics MATH 130 or higher	3
Science Electronics recommended	6-8
Physical Education	2
	38-40
COMPUTER SCIENCE CORE REQUIREMENTS: (12 hrs.)	
CIS 111 Intro. to Computers	2
CIS 111L Intro. to Computers Lab	1
Approved Programming Languages	6
CIS 201 Systems Analysis Methods	3
	12
Math/Science Option: (14 hrs. min.)	
MATH 135 Intro. to Probability and Statistics	3
MATH 150 College Algebra	3
MATH 162 Calculus I	4
Approved Electives (4 hrs. min.)	4
	14
Business Option: (14 hrs. min.)	
ACC 121 Principles of Accounting I	3
ACC 122 Principles of Accounting II	3
BCIS 131L Microcomputers In Business I (3) OR BCIS 132L Microcomputers In Business II (3)	3
Approved Electives (5 hrs. min.)	5
	14
TOTAL HOURS REQUIRED	64-66

STEVEN L. HERSHBERGER

Steven L. Hershberger teaches word processing, financial analysis, accounting and data base programming for Santa Fe Community College at Southern New Mexico Correctional Facility. He previously instructed inmates for Dona Ana Branch Community College, Las Cruces. He teaches an evening computer introduction course for adults on the campus of Dona Ana Branch.

Mr. Hershberger brings to the classroom seven years experience as a business journalist, two years as a microcomputer salesman and one year as a self-employed software consultant. Mr. Hershberger specializes in microcomputer software packages: MultiMate, WordStar, Lotus 1-2-3, dBase III.

Mr. Hershberger holds a Master's Degree in Journalism from University of Illinois and a Certificate in Economics and Business Journalism from Columbia University, New York. He earned his undergraduate degree in journalism from Wichita State University.

Mr. Hershberger is currently engaged in acquiring the New Mexico vocational teaching certificate and an MBA degree from New Mexico State University.

USING SITUATIONAL ASSESSMENT TO IMPROVE VOCATIONAL SKILL DEVELOPMENT

By:
Wilfred D. Wienke, Ed.D.
Professor of Special Education
West Virginia University

John S. Platt, Ed.D.
Professor of Special Education
West Virginia University

Using Situational Assessment to Improve Vocational Skill Development

A problem frequently encountered in the correctional setting is that of assuring that each inmate develops vocational skills to the highest level of potential. While it is not the intent of the correctional system to make incarceration a pleasant experience, it is the responsibility of most correctional systems to assist inmates to develop or refine vocational and vocationally related skills in order to enhance their opportunity for successful transition to the workforce. Such a result has the benefit of decreasing public support expenditures. The use of a simple situational assessment procedure, designed to evaluate work performance can be productive as correctional personnel work to assist inmates in maximizing skill development in preparation for more productive contributions within the workforce.

Why do inmates need well developed vocational and vocationally related skills? Today more than ever, profitable businesses require productive employees. They need employees who can do their job at a competitive level while getting along with supervisors, fellow workers and in some cases customers. They need employees with good work skills as well as good work habits (Wilms 1984). In most instances, the inmate has a strike against him/her simply by having been incarcerated, especially when trying for employment upon release. It is, therefore, critical that vocational and vocationally related skills be developed to the highest potential in order to maximize their opportunity for securing and maintaining successful employment. As persons who have served time in a correctional setting, they need the competitive edge for transitioning to the workplace.

Correctional institutions can also profit from inmates with improved vocational and vocationally related skills. Each year more stress is placed on

tax dollars. At the federal level, the Gramm, Rudman and Hollings Act has the potential of producing severe financial cuts with resultant constraints on federal as well as state correctional systems. Federal money for corrections has never enjoyed a high priority even in the best of times, with the anticipated scheduled budget reductions even more stress on correctional systems is likely to occur. At the state level, available tax money is shrinking as state governments scramble to cover services and programs which were formerly financed by federal sources. Consequently precious few new dollars will be available in most states to meet the demand of higher costs to operate the prisons. Prisons are being asked to be more cost effective. Usually that means correctionists are being asked to do a bigger job for less money.

Some prison administrators are viewing work within the prison setting as beneficial for additional purposes. In addressing increased inmate involvement in prison industries, Gerald Farkas (1985) the head of the Federal Prison Industries program states, "the long term goals are to develop prison industries into a primary correctional work program, to employ a significant percentage of the inmate population, and to develop programs in which inmates can begin to pay their room and board and compensate victims of their crimes, thus demonstrating inmate ability to reduce costs to the taxpayer". In some systems, more productive inmates could contribute positively to a more cost effective operation. That does not mean taking advantage of inmates by asking them to work longer hours or some other negative means. What is suggested here is that inmate productivity could be increased by implementing a sound vocational evaluation and program leading to an effective selective placement. An integral portion of such a program is situational assessment, which may be used to provide data on the individual inmate maximizing the development of vocational and vocationally related skills. This data could also be used to

help corrections placement personnel make better decisions when placing inmates at work sites and jobs within the facility. This includes placement in prison industries. Prison industries have been valuable to correctional systems. Many inmates have benefitted from the vocational and vocationally related skills developed through such programs and are enjoying success in the work place and community as a partial result of this opportunity. In summary, as inmates become more productive, both the prison and the inmate benefit.

What indicators do we have that inmates generally do not have well developed vocational or vocationally related skills? Intake data for years has suggested that a large proportion of inmates upon arrest were unemployed (Beck 1979), Bureau of Justice Statistics 1984. It is our premise that correctional institutions can improve the job skills of inmates by improving vocational programming, thus leading to improved employability. One way to do this is through vocational evaluation, of which situational assessment is one component.

What is situational assessment? Situational assessment has been used in rehabilitation facilities for many years as a method of conducting a vocational evaluation. Sankovsky (1969) found that 78% of rehabilitation facilities used this technique as one of their vocational evaluation approaches. The technique is versatile and can easily be adapted to the prison setting with appropriate planning. As Button and Miller (1972) explain, "The essence of situational assessment is that the client is placed in a real (though controlled) work situation where, under close supervision of trained evaluators, he works with other employees on contract jobs for real wages". Miller (1968) indicates that any job within a facility might be used as a station to conduct a situational assessment. The prison setting, therefore, is ripe with potential placements to conduct situational assessments aimed at gathering

data to help an inmate improve vocational and vocationally related skills. It is the system of gathering data which is of essence. Pruitt (1971) defines it as a "systematic procedure for observing, recording, and interpreting work behavior....". A critical concern is that the information which is gathered is relevant to the program which is in place for the purpose of improving inmate vocational and vocationally related skills. As a part of the inmate skill improvement program, the goal of this assessment should be to maximize opportunities for the inmate (McGuigan, 1980). The situational assessment must never be the end of the program, rather it should contribute through an ongoing implementation to the improvement of inmate skills through modification of instruction based upon continuous assessment.

There are two basic approaches to situational assessment which appear to have value to the correctional educator, namely the Job Analysis Approach and Behavior Analysis Approach. Adoption and adaption of components from each approach would appear to have the most value for correctional settings. The Job Analysis Approach is based upon a description of what "a worker does, what he does it to, what he does it with, and the purpose for doing it" (Pruitt 1971). These functions provide the structure for the identification and evaluation of critical tasks, adjustment, and worker ability variables. The behavior analysis approach is a criterion referenced method that enables the evaluator to determine how well the individual functions within the observed setting. A site standard is developed so that the individual may be compared to a satisfactory worker in that setting. The value of combining these approaches provides the structure to determine the workers ability to perform tasks that are needed to be competitive nationally as well as site specific standards which allow the evaluator to make judgements on the potential of the individual to function successfully within that setting, as well as modifica-

tions in performance needed to compete in the world of work.

How to Conduct a Situational Assessment

The job analysis approach may be used by the evaluator to get a comprehensive description of the job or task responsibilities that a worker must meet. These task responsibilities are listed in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (1981). They are easily referenced by locating the job title in the index and referring to the directed page number. The evaluator will gain valuable information on worker tasks, type of product or service produced, and how the worker performs his job. The information provides the evaluator with the needed information to observe a successful employee functioning on the job. The evaluator should ask the job supervisor to select a worker who is performing at a competitive level on the job which is to be assessed.

The evaluator will then observe this person to determine how the job is performed within that setting. This will provide an indication of the standard the evaluee must meet as well as the components of the job task.

A Job Site Standardization Procedure will help the evaluator determine the levels of behavior that the inmate must achieve in order to be competitive on that job.

The evaluator does a job analysis directly on the job site. He uses this information in combination with his knowledge of the specific student to determine the feasibility of the student reaching an acceptable level of performance. The work evaluator may determine what is an acceptable level of performance by using the Criteria for Acceptable Performance-CAP procedure (Howell and Kaplan 1980).

Howell and Kaplan suggest a standardized procedure to determine the needed criterion for acceptable performance on academic tasks. This procedure can be easily used by the work evaluator:

1. The supervisor or foreman is asked to identify those workers who s/he considers to perform their job at a level that is considered to be successful. Likewise, those workers who are not performing at a satisfactory level are identified.
2. The evaluator observes both groups on the variables of rate and quality (quality criteria are determined by the supervisor or a written standard that s/he follows). A median score for both groups on the variables of rate and quality are calculated.

These data provide the evaluator with the standard from which to determine if a trainee can perform successfully in a placement. The student trainee is given an opportunity to perform the required task(s) in a job/work sample. This information allows vocational programmers to determine the students likelihood for attaining an acceptable level of performance. The educator will combine this information with his knowledge of the student and make one of three conclusions:

1. The student can perform this job at an acceptable or successful level and needs no further skill training (note: the ability to perform the job is one component although a critical one of job success other components will be discussed).
2. It is likely that with further training the individual will be able to perform the skill component of the job;
3. It is unlikely that with a reasonable amount of training that the trainee will ever reach an acceptable level of skill.

This information assists the programmer in deciding on a future placement for the inmate.

The behavior analysis approach picks up where some claim the job analysis approach stops. Pruitt (1971) states "This approach (the job Analysis

Approach) stressed the use of the job itself as an evaluation tool for assessing the competency of the evaluee to perform specific work tasks. The display of minimal competency to assigned work tasks is a necessary but not sufficient indicator of potential acceptability as a worker." The behavior analysis approach provides site specific information on the worker's ability to meet setting demands. Information on critical social interactions between supervisors and co-workers may be observed, as well as behaviors which are indicative of worker dependability and reliability. The standard for such behavior may be determined once again by observing a worker whom management has identified as possessing appropriate social and productivity behavior. The evaluator should note such behaviors so that he may include them in the situational assessment of the inmate.

The following example was developed to demonstrate the recommended combination of job analysis and behavior analysis approaches.

Example

Utopia Reformatory has been contracted by the A.B.C.D. Printing Company, Inc. to complete printing jobs which are beyond their capacity. This has enabled A.B.C.D. to take more orders than they could fill while providing contracts for Utopia. The printing shop at Utopia has been set up to make a profit, inmates are paid a wage and the work situation within the shop is similar to what would be found in the real world.

Jim has applied for work in the print shop. One of the positions which is available is operator of the collating machine. The shop supervisor asks the A.B.E. teacher and the counselor if they think Jim could appropriately do this job. The teacher and counselor meet and decide to reference "collator operator" in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (1981) (here after referred to as the D.O.T.). They decide that it would be a good idea to list the job

tasks and specific skill requirements as found in the D.O.T. This should both assist them in giving an opinion on Jim's potential to do the job, as well as provide a structure for a situational assessment. This is easily accomplished by finding the D.O.T. code for collator operator (208.685-010) and locating the description of collator operator. Two lists are made. One for job tasks and one for specific skill requirements.

Job Tasks	Specific Skill Requirements
1. Operate automatic collating machine.	1. Ability to accurately order pages by number.
2. Remove assembled pages from machine.	2. Ability to load pages to be assembled in the holding or feeding trays of the collating machine.
3. Examine pages for correct order and insert missing pages.	3. Ability to adjust controls for paper size.
4. Assemble complete copies of the printed materials, if in sections.	4. Ability to fasten completed copies by staple, clip, punch or binding.
5. Fasten completed copies as directed.	5. Knowledge of routing and storage procedures for completed copies.
6. Route or shelve finished sections or assembled copies.	6. Tolerance for repetitive activities.

After examination of the job both professionals feel that Jim can do the job, however, they both feel that an on-the-job situational assessment will be necessary. The counselor offers to observe in the print shop to determine what the characteristics of the specific setting are relative to typical worker behavior pattern and physical and social patterns. Patterns of worker behavior are obtained by observing a successful worker and determining the behaviors that he engages in, Dunn (1973) provides a valuable structure for this variable as he lists nine behaviors that the worker may engage in an industrial setting.

1. Attending to task
2. Rest break - scheduled
3. Self-initiated work related interaction supervisor
4. Other - initiated social interaction; co-worker

5. Rest break - unscheduled
6. Other - initiated work related interaction; supervisor
7. Self-initiated social interaction; co-worker
8. Idle
9. Other

The evaluator should also include an acceptable rate of production and an acceptable rate of error. The evaluator should carefully observe a successful employee to determine what rates he produces on all of these behaviors. This will provide a standard, that if approximated by the person you evaluate, will make him successful in that specific job setting, given that he is able to meet the other job demands of interpersonal relationships and the physical demands of the setting. These variables are of equal importance and should also be carefully assessed in the situational assessment. The interpersonal relationships may be evaluated by observing an identified "successful employee" t determine what behaviors he displays and assessing the evaluee on these target behaviors. The physical demands of the job and the workers capability to meet these demands must also be determined. Prior to placement the evaluator may obtain a general idea of the typical physical demands for this job title in the D.O.T. It is important that this be further assessed in the specific situational assessment as physical demands will vary from site to site.

Summary

Situational Assessment is an important criterion referenced procedure that the vocational evaluator may use in correctional settings. The use of such procedures will allow the evaluator to both assess the performance and progress of the inmate within the work setting, as well as identify specific skills or conditions which may be modified to enhance the inmates performance and future job possibilities. If implemented on a continuing basis and conducted in a systematic fashion the information should prove to be both reliable and valid.

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